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From MAY to AUGUST, *inclusive*,

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OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. FOR REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review, — see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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ERRATA

ERRATA in Vol. XCV.

- Page 73. l. 55. for 'says,' read *avers*.
75. l. 9. from bottom, for 'hands,' read *persons*.
131. l. 5. from bottom, for 'writer,' read *author*.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MAY, 1821.

ART. I. *Memoirs of the Protector, Oliver Cromwell, and of his Sons, Richard and Henry*; illustrated by Original Letters and other Family Papers. By Oliver Cromwell, Esq.; a Descendant of the Family. With Portraits from Original Pictures. 4to. pp. 733. 3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

IT is time that a portrait of Oliver Cromwell should be drawn by at least no hostile hand, and that his character and course of conduct should be exhibited without injustice, whatever be the result of the investigation. In saying this, we do not anticipate that ignorance or malignity will impute to us any spirit of disaffection to the constitution of our ancestors; since the tone and temper of our pages on political subjects, consistently preserved through a period of almost four-score years, furnish an ample security against such a suspicion. With so deep veneration, indeed, do we regard that glorious constitution, that we should deem every sacrifice trivial for the restoration of it uncorrupted, and for the preservation of it inviolate. In its original form, it is almost divine: to such a degree, to use the language of Sir William Jones, "that no state of Rome or Greece could ever boast one superior to it; nor could Plato, Aristotle, nor any legislator even conceive a more perfect model of a state. The three parts which compose it are so harmoniously blended and incorporated, that neither the flute of Aristoxenus nor the lyre of Timotheus ever produced more perfect concord. What can be more difficult," he continues, "than to devise a constitution which, while it guards the dignity of the sovereign and liberty of the people from any encroachment by the influence and power of the nobility, preserves the force and majesty of the laws from violation by the popular liberty?"

Such was the case formerly in our happy island, and we trust it will be so again: but, if the people of this country are indeed destined to become great and honourable in these latter ages, they must "cast off the old and wrinkled skin of corruption," and, waxing young again, "enter upon the glorious ways of truth and prosperous virtue."

We make this explicit ~~declaration~~, perhaps superfluously, not to qualify the avowal of our satisfaction at an open, manly, and temperate defence of Cromwell, but as a candid acknowledgement to the author of it that we did not open his book with any partial feelings towards his ancestor; and that we entertained no favourable reminiscences of the General of an army who could surround the House of Commons of England with his musketeers, force the Speaker out of his chair, drive the members out of the House, give "that fool's babble," the Speaker's mace, to a soldier, lock up the doors, and then coolly go home to his lodgings at Whitehall!

The present author observes, that 'it has been the singular ill fortune of Cromwell and of his family that his character hath been left exclusively in the hands of his enemies:' but how cutting is the remark! Is there no more correct way of accounting for the fact than that 'the short interval between his death and the Restoration, and the unsettled state of the nation in the intermediate time, left no opportunity for a faithful and impartial history of him?' If Cromwell's character has been left exclusively in the hands of his enemies, the obvious and inevitable conclusion is that he had no friends to redeem it. What friends had he? Indeed, what friends, personal or political, could he have, who made no scruple in sacrificing them to his own ambition? The republicans were an object of greater dread to him than the royalists; and they had a deeper hatred and abhorrence of him, because they considered him as a traitor to their cause, while the royalists regarded him as an open and avowed enemy. Latterly, indeed, says Mrs. Hutchinson in her valuable Memoirs of her husband, Colonel H., "the cavaliers, in policy, who saw that while Cromwell reduced all the exercise of tyrannical power under another name, *there was a doore opened for the restoring of their party*, fell in much with Cromwell, and heightened all his disorders. He at last exercised such an arbitrary power that the whole land grew weary of him," &c. &c.

Ludlow was confined by him in Ireland; for the brave and honest Ludlow had refused to give up the commission which he had received from the parliament, and by his authority and influence had retarded the proclaiming of Cromwell as *Protector*, in Ireland, for a fortnight. Wildman, Harrison, and Carew, for setting on foot a petition to parliament, beseeching that it would assert an independent authority, were also plunged into confinement; and Sir Henry Vane, than whom, says Milton in one of his sonnets,

"A better

“ A better senator ne'er held
The helm of Rome, when gowns, not arms, repell'd
The fierce Epirot and the African bold,”

was committed prisoner to Carisbrooke Castle, because he had published a pamphlet called “ *The Healing Question*,” shewing the deviation of Cromwell's system from the principles on which the late King had been opposed and beheaded. Colonel Rich, moreover, was sent prisoner to Windsor; Overton, to the Tower; and Lilbourne, after many sufferings and prosecutions, was tyrannically detained in prison after acquittal of an indictment against him for high treason, by a jury of his peers. These were all steady and active republicans, on whom Cromwell laid his heavy hand. Then, what friends could he expect to find among them? Milton, indeed, who had been Latin secretary to the Long Parliament, continued the same office under the protectorate. Milton was undoubtedly a firm and conscientious republican, of a haughty temper, which could brook no human control; and even the parliamentary hierarchy, as Wharton observes in a note on one of Milton's sonnets, was too coercive for the man who acknowledged only King Jesus, who looked on conformity of all sorts as slavery, and who regarded the modern presbyter as equally disposed to persecution and oppression with the antient bishop. It was with these feelings that he scornfully penned his sonnet “ *On the New Forcers of Conscience under the Long Parliament* ;” and it was against the restrictions of those whom he deemed enemies to the utmost indulgence in religious matters, that he reposed his chief hope of enjoying liberty of conscience from Cromwell: who is thus addressed as the great guardian of religious independence in another sonnet by Milton:

“ New foes arise,
Threatening to bind our souls in secular chains:
Help us to save free conscience from the paw
Of hireling wolves, whose gospel is their maw ;”
(Son. xvi.)

and who, whether for political reasons is not now the question, allowed all professions. After he had assumed the title of Protector, was the domestic administration of Cromwell calculated to conciliate the royalists, or to regain the lost confidence of the republicans? Mr. Hume, we are aware, acknowledges that he displayed “ as great regard both to justice and clemency as his usurped authority, derived from no law, and founded only on the sword, could possibly admit.” This in itself is vague, and the examples adduced to corroborate the remark are so qualified as rather to weaken it: but is

it or is it not true that, in order to punish the royalists, Cromwell divided the kingdom into twelve military jurisdictions, and delegated to the twelve Major-generals, whom he appointed over them, a power which entirely superseded the established laws of the country? Is it true or false that he threatened the judges of the realm, and dismissed them from their office when they refused to become the instruments of his arbitrary will? that he dismissed, for instance, Baron Thorpe and Judge Newdigate, for rejecting a jury returned by his own order; and that he told Judge Hale, on his return from one of the circuits, that "he was not fit to be a judge?" Is it true that he packed his juries, as well as his parliaments, according to a letter in Thurloe's State-papers written to the secretary himself by a party concerned, namely, by one Mr. John Dove, who undertook "that not one man should be returned by his undersheriff in the one or other juries" (for trial of the rebel royalists) "but such as may be confided in, and of the honest, well-affected party to his Highness and the present government?" Is it or is it not true that he imprisoned Serjeants Maynard and Twisdon, and Mr. Wadham Windham, the counsel for one George Cony, a merchant, in his prosecution at common law of one of Cromwell's collectors? Cony was a prisoner at Cromwell's suit; and, being brought to the bar of the King's Bench by a Habeas Corpus, these his counsel were taken from the bar, and sent to the Tower for pleading their client's cause. Lastly, is it true or false that he raised money by a decimation (as it was called) on the estates of the royalists? and that, about two months before his death, the following plan was gravely proposed and repeatedly debated by a select committee of nine of his friends, who daily met to consider how money could be raised; namely, that an oath of abjuration against Charles Stuart, (the pretended king,) his title, and family, should be taken by the cavalier party and their children, and the swearing of allegiance to his Highness should be enforced, on pain of forfeiting not "a decimation" but *two-thirds* of their estates? This appears in a letter from Thurloe to Henry Cromwell, under the date of June 22. 1658. Oliver died on the 3d of September following.

If these things be true, we may easily account for 'the singular ill-fortune of Oliver Cromwell in having his character left exclusively to his enemies,' though we do not desire that the case should so remain.

Milton, we have observed, continued secretary under the protectorate, and it is well that he did: for he was by no means blinded to the character of Oliver, but in various parts of his *Defensio Secunda* admonishes him with great spirit, freedom,

dom, and eloquence, not to abuse his new authority. Let no one suppose that Milton forfeited the independence of his own mind by transferring his services from a republican parliament to an autocrat: no: — he was the unavailing Mentor, bravely pleading for the liberties of his country, and endeavouring to subdue in Cromwell's mind the lust of empire. We may be allowed, perhaps, to give a specimen of the style in which that illustrious patriot dared to address the Protector:

“ Consider,” says he in one of his letters to him; “ consider often with yourself that your country has entrusted you with her dearest pledge, that of her liberty; regard the great expectations conceived of you; reflect that your country's hope is entirely from you: regard the countenances and wounds of so many brave men who, under your conduct, have fought for liberty; regard the manes of those who have died in battle; regard what foreign nations may think and say of us, and the great things they have promised themselves from our noble acquisition of liberty, and our new commonwealth so gloriously begun to be established, which *if it prove abortive will be great infamy to this nation*; lastly, regard your own character, and never suffer that liberty for which you have passed through so many toils and dangers *to be violated by yourself*, or in any measure be lessened by others. You cannot be free yourself unless we are free; for such is the necessary constitution of things, that whoever invades the liberty of others, first of all loses his own, and will be sensible of his being a slave. But if he who has been the patron, and, as it were, the tutelar deity of liberty, and been esteemed a man of the greatest sanctity and probity, should usurp over that liberty he has defended, it will be a pernicious and almost fatal wound, not only to his reputation but even to that of virtue and piety in general; honesty and virtue will seem to be lost, religion will have little regard paid to it, and reputation will ever after be of small account; than which no greater misfortune can befall mankind.”

Such was the prophetic denunciation of Milton. Whitelock also addressed the Protector in a tone of similar severity and frankness; and Harington's *Oceana* produced such an impression on him that it is said to have extorted this observation, “ The gentleman had like to have trepanned me out of my power, but what I have got by the sword I will not quit for a little paper-shot.” The brave and gallant Hutchinson, likewise, who knew him well, who studied his character, who was flattered, courted, and caressed, but never deceived or won over by him, and whom Cromwell would have given half his sceptre to have secured in his interests, told him plainly that “ he would not act with him because he liked not any of his ways since he broke the parliament,” and how “ apparent a way was made for the restitution of all former tyranny and bondage.”

After all, however, the present biographer is not correct in asserting that justice has not been done to the character of his ancestor by at least one historian. We refer to Rapin; who is not much of a speculatist or philosopher, but a plain matter-of-fact writer, with as few political prejudices as any that we know; and Mr. Cromwell might have found, at the close of Rapin's account of the protectorate, a calm and moderate *defence* of his ancestor against the violent and intemperate attacks both of royalists and republicans.

The first two hundred pages of the work before us are entirely devoted to the history of this country, from the accession of Charles I., 27th March, 1625, to the death of the Protector, Sept. 3. 1658. This part contains a very rapid summary of the principal transactions through that long period, taken from the contemporary historians, Clarendon, Rushworth, Ludlow, May, and Whitelock. The memoirs of Cromwell, and the discussion of his character in a public and private capacity, begin where they usually terminate, namely, at the death of the party. As every English history and biographical dictionary gives an account of the "birth, parentage, and education," of Oliver Cromwell, we shall not dwell much on these matters, in order to vindicate the illustriousness of his family against the ignorance or wilful misrepresentations of any writers, who have been weak enough to fancy that they could vilify the individual by degrading his genealogy. His pedigree is amply detailed here, and still more minutely traced in Mr. Noble's *Memoirs of the House of Cromwell*, taken principally from a family-document. It was illustrious on both sides: on the maternal side, if the table of descent be correct, it appears that James the First, and consequently Charles the First, and Oliver Cromwell, were cousins. Lord Hailes, in his *Annals of Scotland*, says that at Halidan, in the year 1333, two Stewarts fought under the banners of their chiefs; the one, Alan of Dughom, the paternal ancestor of Charles I., and the other, James of Rosythe, the maternal ancestor of Oliver Cromwell. The Protector's father was a brewer: at whose decease the widow carried on the concern, that she might enable her daughters to marry into genteel families. It does not appear certain whether Oliver ever engaged in the trade: but in one of his speeches (Sept. 1654,) he says, in the face of the public, "I was by birth a gentleman, neither living in any considerable height nor yet in obscurity;" adding that he had been called to several employments in the nation, and to serve in parliaments. Mr. Noble says, it appears by the *Journals of the House of Commons* that he was in no less than twenty
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committees between Dec. 17. 1641, and June 20. 1642; an ample proof of the opinion that was entertained of his talents.

He was born at Huntingdon, April 25. 1599, and was entered a Fellow-commoner at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, when seventeen years of age. He sat as member for Huntingdon in the second and third parliaments of 1625 and 1627, and again in the short parliament, for Cambridge, in 1640. He likewise represented Cambridge in the succeeding parliament of Nov. 3. 1640, being the Long Parliament, and was immediately appointed a member of several committees. Various calumnies were propagated after the Restoration respecting his early dissipation, idleness, and depravity: but they are disproved by his descendant with a laudable earnestness; as well as the common opinion of his ignorance of the Latin language, with which it appears that he was familiarly acquainted. Several instances are likewise adduced of his encouragement of literature, and patronage of learned men. When he was just of age, in the year 1620, he married Elizabeth, the daughter of Sir James Bouchier, by whom he had nine children; and all of them, it is observable, were baptized according to the rites of the Established Church. At what time he was weaned from the orthodox system, and became a non-conformist, we are not very clearly informed. The godly style which he assumed in his letters, conversations, and speeches, would of course be ridiculed in the licentious reign of Charles the Second: but the religious conversation and correspondence of the time in which he lived were generally in the same manner, and very similar to that which is adopted by an almost overwhelming class of religionists in the present day. To us it is inexpressibly offensive: but we are not prepared to say that it was the offspring of hypocrisy in Cromwell, and still less in the class to which we allude. Such sweeping charges must always be treated with contempt and censure.—A touching earnestness and solemnity are manifested in the following short note to his wife, without the cant and jargon of fancied inspiration:

“ My dearest;

“ I could not satisfie myselfe to omitt this poast, although I have not much to write, yet indeed I love to write to my deere, whoe is very much in my hart. It joys mee to heere thy soule prospereth; the Lord increase his favors to thee more and more. The great good thy soule can wish is, that the Lord lift upon thee the light of his countenance, which is better then life. The Lord blesse all thy good counsell and example to those about thee, and heere all thy prayers, and accept thee alwayes. I am glad to heere thy sonn and daughter are with thee. I hope thou wilt have some

good opportunitye of good advise to him. Present my duty to my mother, my love to all the familie. Still pray for thine
 ‘ “O. CROMWELL.” ’

This was written when he had been married two-and-thirty years: it is tender and affectionate; and these dozen lines tell more in favour of his private character as a husband and a father, than a dozen volumes of invective prove against it. Many letters also are here introduced, written by Cromwell to his several children, all of which evince his anxious care for their present and future welfare: some instances are likewise recorded (chiefly taken from Harris's life) of his humanity and generosity to his enemies; and we entirely concur with his present biographer, in opposition to Ludlow and some other historians, that the Act of Oblivion which he passed in 1651 did him great credit on the score of mercy and benevolence. This Act was undoubtedly politic: but it is the greatest injustice to attribute a measure, which is in itself magnanimous, to a sinister and selfish motive alone, when it may with at least equal probability, and without any stretch of candour, be referred to nobler feelings. — His endeavour to free the estate of the Countess of Arundell and Surrey from sequestration, and the assistance which he gave to the Marchioness of Ormonde, on application for a similar purpose, are highly to his honour; and his conduct to the young Princess Elizabeth, and Henry Duke of Gloucester, the King's children, was, as Mr. Fox observes in his History of James II., “an instance of generosity almost unexampled in the history of transactions of this nature.”

The following character of Cromwell was written by Mr. Maidston, who, “by reason of his nearness to him, had opportunity well to observe it,” in a letter giving an account of his death to Mr. Winthrop:

“His body was wel compact and strong; his stature under six foote (I believe about two inches); his head so shaped as you might see it a storehouse and shop both of a vast treasury of natural parts. His temper exceeding fyery, as I have known; but the flame of it kept downe, for the most part, or soon allayed with those moral endowments he had. He was naturally compassionate towards objects in distresse, even to an effeminate measure; though God had made him a heart, wherein was left little rounge for any fear but what was due to himselfe, of which there was a large proportion, yet did he exceed in tendernes towards sufferers. A larger soule, I thinke, hath seldome dwelt in a house of clay than his was. I do believe, if his story were impartially transmitted, and the unprejudiced world wel possest with it, she would add him to her nine worthies, and make up that member a decemviri. He lived and dyed in comfortable communion with God, as judicious persons neer him wel observed.”

Mr. Crom-

Mr. Cromwell expatiates on the generosity of the Protector towards his enemies. We have already said that the republicans were an object of greater dread to him, after he had usurped the supreme power, than the royalists, and they were by far the most determined of his enemies. In the commencement of this article, we referred to several instances of what we cannot but consider as the basest ingratitude of Cromwell towards the republicans, who were no longer indeed his friends after he became Protector; and another case occurs to us:

‘Mrs. Hutchinson,’ says the present author, ‘appears to have had a great dislike of Cromwell, seemingly owing to some supposed affront of Colonel Hutchinson her husband, and she appears to have been a strictly religious character; she is quite silent as to the supposed irregularities of Cromwell; she only says of him, (upon his becoming Protector, after censuring him for so doing and expressing her disapprobation of some parts of his public conduct,) *to speak the truth of him, he had much natural greatness, and well became the place he had usurped.*’

This is the truth, as far as it goes, but it is not the whole truth. Where does Mrs. Hutchinson’s ‘dislike’ of Cromwell appear to have sprung from some supposed affront to her husband? * No: her ‘dislike’ was a rooted abomination of his despotic power, and of the means by which he obtained it.

* We presume that Mr. Cromwell must allude to the appointment of Major Saunders to the command of Colonel Thornage’s regiment, after a petition had been presented from the Nottingham Horse that they might serve under Colonel Hutchinson. Application was made to Cromwell; who, “with all the assentation imaginable, seemed to rejoice they had made so worthy a choice, and promised the regiment should not be disposed of till they knew whether Colonel Hutchinson would accept it.” He did accept it: but, as soon as the Nottinghamshire men had departed, Oliver sent for Saunders, and procured the commission for him. This undoubtedly looked like a personal affront, and would justify the resentment of the insulted party: but Mrs. H. and her husband evidently did not so consider it, because she expressly assigns two reasons for this act of insincerity, founded on different feelings. One was that Cromwell knew that Colonel Hutchinson understood him, and was too generous either to fear or flatter him; and the Colonel had spoken out so plainly at Nottingham, that Cromwell saw in him an enemy to his designs, and could not rely on him. The other reason was that he intended, by insinuating himself into the good will of Saunders, to flatter him into the sale of a town belonging to him, called Ireton, which he wished to purchase for Major-General Ireton, his son-in-law; and that, when he could not obtain it, he took the regiment away.

To mark and contrast the characters of the two men, and shew in its true colours the ingratitude of Cromwell, it should be recollected that Colonel Hutchinson once accidentally obtained the knowledge of a plot which had been laid for the assassination of the Protector; when, impelled by the true nobility of his own nature, although he had openly protested against the usurpation, he immediately gave to Fleetwood such a warning as enabled the intended victim to escape, without betraying the names of any of the conspirators. Subsequently, Cromwell sent for the Colonel, received him with open arms and the kindest embraces, and with the smoothest insinuations endeavoured to wheedle out of him the names of the parties engaged.

"But none of his cunning, nor promises, nor flatteries," says Mrs. Hutchinson, "could prevail with the Colonell to informe him more than he thought necessary to prevent the execution of the designe; which when the Protector perceived, he gave him most infinite thanks for what he had told him, and acknowledged it opened to him some misteries that had perplexed him, and agreed so with other intelligence that he had, that he must owe his preservation to him. But, says he, deare Colonell, why will not you come in and act among us? The Colonell told him plainly, because he liked not any of his wayes since he broke the parliament, as being those which led to certeyn and unavoidable destruction." — "Cromwell seemed to receive this honest plainnesse with the greatest affection that could be, and acknowledged his precipitatenesse in some things, and *with teares* complained how Lambert had put him upon all those violent actions for which he now accused him and sought his ruine. He exprest an earnest desire to *restore* the peoples' liberties, and to take and pursue more safe and sober counsell, and wound up all with a very faire courtship of the Colonell to engage with him, *offering him any thing he would account worthy of him*. The Colonell told him *he could not be forward to make his owne advantage by serving to the enslaving of his country,*" &c. &c.

Now let us mark the issue. Colonel Hutchinson, to avoid the disgusting troops of courtiers who, in consequence of Cromwell's public and affectionate behaviour to him, now flocked with their frivolous officiousness around the man whom they had before neglected, "quitting himself of them as soon as he could, made haste to returne into the country. There he had not long bene but that he was informed, notwithstanding all these faire shewes, *the Protector, finding him too constant to be wrought upon to serve his tirannie, had resolved to cure his person, least he should head the people who now grew very weary of his bondage. But though it was certainly confirmed to the Colonell how much he was afraide of his honesty and freedome,*

*freedome, and that he was resolved not to let him longer be att liberty; yet before his guards apprehended the Colonell, death imprisoned himselfe, and confined all his vast ambition and all his cruell designs into the narrow compasse of a grave.**

If Cromwell was 'generous towards his enemies,' this anecdote, in addition to others already mentioned, convicts him of mean and pusillanimous ingratitude towards his friends.

Mr. C. puts into a parenthesis Mrs. Hutchinson's censure of Cromwell for his assumption of the protectorate, and what he calls her 'disapprobation of some parts of his public conduct.' We have always considered the numerous anecdotes of Oliver Cromwell, related in illustration of his character by Mrs. Hutchinson in the "Memoirs" of her husband, as by no means the least interesting portion of that most interesting work. The Colonel and his wife studied Oliver's character deeply, were *interested* in studying it, and had the amplest means before them. His lust of empire was early unveiled by them both, and his duplicity more than suspected. The levellers and presbyterians entertained the greatest jealousy of each other: the former "were the first to discover the ambition of Lieutenant-General Cromwell and his idolaters, and to suspect and dislike it. About this time," says Mrs. H., "he was sent down, after his victory in Wales, to encounter Hamilton in the north. When he went downe, the chiefe of these levellers following him out of the towne, to take their leaves of him, received such professions from him, of a spiritt bent to persue the same iust and honest things that they desired, as they went away with greate satisfaction — 'till they heard that a coachfull of presbyterian priests coming after them went away noe lesse pleased; by which, it was apparent, he dissembled with one or other, and by so doing lost his credit with both."†

The biographer quotes one sentence from Mrs. Hutchinson, in which she gives Oliver credit for "natural greatnesse;" and he adds, that she disapproved of 'some parts' of his public conduct. We must be allowed to cite this passage and its context more at length, because Mr. C. has scarcely afforded a fair representation of Mrs. H.'s opinion of the Protector's government.

"In the interim, Cromwell and his armie grew wanton with their power, and invented a thousand tricks of government which, when nobody opposed, they themselves fell to dislike and vary every day. First he calls a parliament out of his own pocket,

* See *Memoirs of the Life of Colonel Hutchinson*, p. 342.

† *Ibid.* p. 286.

himselfe naming a sort of godly men for every county, who meeting and not agreeing, a part of them, in the name of the people, give up the sovereignty to him. Shortly after, he makes up severall sorts of mock parliaments, but not finding one of them absolutely for his turne, turned them off againe. He soone quitted himselfe of his triumvirs, and first thrust out Harrison, then tooke away Lambert's commission, and would have been king, but for fear of quitting his generalship. He weeded, in a few months' time, above a hundred and fifty godly officers out of the armie, with whom many of the religious souldiers went off; and in their roome, abundance of the King's dissolute souldiers were entertained, and the armie was almost changed from that godly religious armie whose vallour God had crowned with triumph, into the dissolute armie they had beaten, bearing yett a better name. His wife and children were setting up for principallity, which suited no better with any of them than scarlett on an ape; only, to speake the truth of himselfe, he had much natural greatnesse, and well became the place he had usurped. His daughter Fleetewood was humbled, and not exalted with these things; but the rest were insolent fooles. Claypoole, who married his daughter, and his son Henry, were two debauched ungodly cavaliers. Richard was a peasant in his nature, yet gentle and virtuous, but became not greatnesse. His court was full of sinne and vanity, and the more abominable, because they had not yett quite cast away the name of God, but prophaned it by taking it in vaine upon them. True religion was now almost lost, even among the religious party, and hipocrisie became an epidemical disease, to the sad grieve of Coll. Hutchinson and all true-hearted Christians and Englishmen," &c. &c.

She then goes on to particularize several instances of those despotic measures at which we have glanced in the former part of this article; and it clearly appears that Mrs. Hutchinson's 'disapprobation' was not confined to 'some parts' of Cromwell's public conduct, but was extended to the whole of it. When she says that his court was full of "sinne and vanity," she probably refers to that "epidemical disease," the "hipocrisie," which she bewails; for not only was Cromwell's personal character clear from every stain of licentiousness or irregularity, but abundant evidence is adduced in the volume before us (p. 246. *et seq.*) to shew that his court was free from vice, that no riot or debauchery was seen or known, but that every where an air of sobriety and decorum appeared, and virtue had at least the homage paid to it of an assumption of its exterior. We must acknowledge, however, notwithstanding the labour exerted by Mr. Cromwell to liberate his ancestor from the charge of dissimulation, that we find it exceedingly difficult to give him a verdict of acquittal. Still the question remains, is his dissimula-

simulation to be imputed to him as a crime? That honest historian Rapin says;

"If it be true as is pretended, *though without proof*, that he mocked God and religion by expressing a piety and devotion which he had not, and by making long prayers full of seeming zeal; if it be true that his mouth uttered what his heart never meant; no man ought to endeavour to vindicate him. But his strong bias to enthusiasm is well known; and who can affirm it was rather out of hypocrisy than real persuasion? We are not rashly to ascribe to men inward motives, which no mortal can know. His dissimulation practised for the better management of the several parties, all equally his enemies, has nothing, that I can see, very blameable in it, unless it was a crime not to leave it in the power of his enemies to destroy him with ease."

Cromwell certainly played his cards with the greatest possible dexterity; and nobody was better acquainted with the inward springs of human action, or displayed more address in making men of the most opposite principles, both in politics and religion, become subservient to his views. With the Deists he was merry at the extravagant zeal of the fanatics; and to these last he talked of the others as of heathens and infidels: but, as the enthusiasts were the most obstinate, he intimated to some of them that he would rather have taken a shepherd's staff than the protectorship, had it not been to prevent confusion; that he would resign his dignity with more joy than he accepted it, when things were settled, for that nothing was more contrary to his inclination and principles than a grandeur which obliged him to assume an outward superiority over his fellow-labourers; and, in order to convince them of his sincerity, he would call them into his closet, make them sit uncovered, and talk with them as his equals: *these discourses commonly ending in a long prayer*. Ample dissimulation in all this, no doubt: but Rapin's question recurs, how far was it a criminal dissimulation to play off one party against another, and make each hope for some peculiar indulgences? Cromwell always maintained that the protectorate was forced on him; and in the speech which he made when he dissolved the last parliament, (Feb. 4. 1658,) he says, "There is not a man living can say I sought it; no not a man nor woman treading upon English ground," &c. He certainly did not seek to be made *Protector*: but why? because he sought to be made KING. "I can say, in the presence of God, in comparison of whom we are but like poor creeping ants upon the earth, I would have been glad to have lived under my wood-side, to have kept a flock of sheep, rather than have undertook such a government as this is," &c.

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He exercised nearly the same sort of dissimulation both in accepting the protectorate and in disposing of it. First, as to his acceptance of it. When the "humble petition and advice" of a packed parliament was presented to him that he would take the title of King, he had not courage to accept the offered diadem: but there is abundant evidence that he had been tampering with his creatures to obtain the crown, and would have assumed it but for the opposition of Lambert, Whitelock, Fleetwood, Desborough, and some others whom he could not persuade to concur in his scheme. Thurloe, in a letter to Henry Cromwell, then Deputy of Ireland, writes thus:

"His Highness was pleased to declare to several of the House that he was resolved to accept the title of King: but just in the very nick of time he took other resolutions: the *three great men*, professing their unfreeness to act, said that immediately after his acceptance thereof, they must withdraw from all public employment, and so they believed would several other officers of quality who had been engaged all along in this war. Besides, the very morning the House expected his Highness would have come and given his consent to the bill, some twenty-six or seven officers came with a petition to the parliament, to desire them not to press his Highness any farther about kingship." (*State Papers.*)

This petition against Cromwell's "kingship" was presented in the name of the military; and it set forth that they had hazarded their existence against monarchy, and were still ready to do it in defence of the liberty of the nation, &c. &c. The parliament was thunderstruck; and not less was the dismay of Cromwell, who sent an immediate message to the House to meet him at Whitehall, and there with great show of self-denial he refused to accept the title of King. Ludlow, in his *Memoirs*, says that, in a conversation with Fleetwood and Desborough, after Cromwell had used many unavailing arguments to persuade them to comply with his wishes for the crown, he condescended so low as to solicit them in these words: "It is but a feather in a man's cap; and therefore it is surprizing you will not please children, and let them enjoy their rattle." Whitelock spoke his sentiments very freely on this subject; and the whole conversation between him and Cromwell, who had especially sought it for the purpose of sounding him, is full of interest.

"What," says Cromwell, "if a man should take upon him to be a king?"—"I think," replies Whitelock, "that remedy would be worse than the disease."—Cromwell, "What do you apprehend would be the danger of taking this title?"—Whitelock, "One of the main points of controversy betwixt us and our adversaries is, whether

whether the government of this nation shall be established in monarchy or a free state or commonwealth; and most of our friends have engaged with us upon the hopes of having it settled in a free state, and to effect that have undergone all their hazards and difficulties. Now if your Excellency shall take upon you the title of King, &c. the question will be no more whether our government shall be by a monarch or free state, but whether Cromwell or Stuart shall be king, and that which was universal will, by these means, become in effect a private controversy only." — "In this case, those who are for a commonwealth, and they are a great and considerable party, will desert you: your hands will be weakened, your interest straightened, and your cause in apparent danger to be ruined. I apprehend less envy, and danger, and pomp, but not less power, and real opportunities of doing good, in your being General, than would be if you assumed the title of King."

This language from Whitelock was particularly bold and manly, because he was not a republican himself, but on the contrary recommends in this very conference that Cromwell should send to the King of Scots, and have a private treaty with him for the purpose of restoring in his person the monarchy, with such limits to its power "as will secure our spiritual and civil liberties, and the cause in which we are all engaged."

Cromwell, after an acknowledgement of the reasonableness of these arguments, said, "We shall take a further time to discourse of it;" and then, adds Whitelock, "the General brake off, seeming by his countenance and carriage displeased with what had been said," and from that time his carriage towards Whitelock was altered, although he never objected against him in any public meeting. Not long afterward, he found an occasion, by an honourable employment, to send Whitelock out of the way; in order, as some of his nearest relations, particularly his daughter Claypoole, confessed, that he (Whitelock) might be no obstacle or impediment to his ambitious designs; "as," says he, "may appear by the process of this story." (P. 466.)

In the second place, as to the *disposal* of the protectorate, Cromwell appointed his son Richard to the succession on the evening before his death, in direct opposition to the sentiment which he had avowed to the first assembly of representatives that met after his usurpation. "So fully am I convinced," said he on that occasion, "of the injustice of hereditary government, that if you had offered me the whole instrument of government, with that one alteration in favour of my family, I should have refused the whole for the sake of that;
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and I do not know, though you have begun with an unworthy person, but hereafter the same method may be observed in the choice of magistrates as was among the children of Israel, who appointed those who had been the most eminent in delivering them from their enemies abroad to govern them at home." The fear of disobliging the leading officers of the army, says Mrs. Macaulay, whose turbulence Cromwell had quieted with the hopes of succession, occasioned him to neglect the nomination of his son till his last moments. Nay, the original instrument itself, by which Cromwell was invested with the supreme power of the state, contained a clause (the thirty-second) declaring the office of Protector *elective*, not *hereditary*, although he had afterward obtained the privilege of appointing his successor.* — So much for his sincerity.

The republicans, however, would never have supported Cromwell if he had not dissembled, and concealed from them the ambitious views which he entertained. In justice to him, also, the probability must be admitted that his ambition gradually expanded with his elevation; and that, in the first instance, he was rather the tool of them than they of him. This is an observation made by Mrs. Macaulay, a republican like Mrs. Hutchinson, and, like her, a bitter enemy to the usurpation of Cromwell. The republicans took their rise about the beginning of the Long Parliament. Henry Martin was sent to the Tower for saying in the House "that it was better one family should be destroyed than many;" and on being ordered to explain what he meant by the expression "one family," he boldly answered, "The King and his children:"—Sir Henry Ludlow was reproved by the Speaker for saying that Charles was not worthy to be King of England;—and Chillingworth was also consigned to the Tower for citing examples concerning the deposing of princes.

[To be continued.]

* He violated another article of the instrument of government, namely the eighth, which declared "that no parliament was to be adjourned, prorogued, or dissolved, during the space of five months from its first meeting, without its own consent." Cromwell's first parliament met on the 3d of September, 1654, and "the meek usurper," after an angry speech, dissolved them on the 22d January following. This was the beginning of his career! and the close of it was *qualis ab incepto*.

ART. II. *A Geographical, Statistical, and Historical Description of Hindostan, and the adjacent Countries.* By Walter Hamilton, Esq. 2 Vols. 4to. pp. about 800 in each. 4l. 14s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1820.

THIRTY years have elapsed since Major Rennell composed his excellent Memoir and Map of Hindostan; subsequently to which period, conquest has explored and limited many districts that were not then contemplated as likely to become component parts of the empire. The result of the late military operations in India has, indeed, so completely established the supremacy of the British government, that the native chiefs can scarcely be said to retain even a secondary importance; and territories formerly classed as independent may, henceforth, be numbered among the tributary provinces. Such a moment is favourable to a new arrangement of the geography of Hindostan; which is reduced, in the important volumes before us, to a more systematic form than any preceding writer has hitherto attempted. A map is prefixed, which exhibits the larger geographical divisions, and each province is treated separately in the text. First occurs a general exposition of its climate, rivers, mountains, extent, productions, and inhabitants; after which, the towns remarkable for monuments, commerce, population, military strength, or maritime access, are separately described. In some instances, the historical details are copious; in others, the geographic and statistical particulars are somewhat defective: but the author had not always within reach the documents necessary to remedy these omissions.

The materials, from which this description of Hindostan has been prepared, consist partly of printed intelligence generally accessible to the public, and partly of the manuscript-records deposited at the India-board. It is the practice of each presidency to transmit half-yearly reports on the political, financial, and judicial condition of their respective governments; mostly accompanied by copies of the correspondence with their subordinate functionaries. These official records are voluminous, and supply the careful inspector with much valuable instruction. Dr. Francis Hamilton, now Buchanan, who was deputed in the years 1807—1810 to ascertain and report on the internal condition of the districts of Dinagepoor, Rungpoor, Purneah, Boglipoor, and Bahar, may be distinguished as having executed the task with singular extent, ability, and success; and other reports are enumerated, of inferior detail and value. To these written sources of knowledge has been added the corrective aid of personal observation and inquiry, among those who

REV. MAY, 1821.

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were qualified by residence to attest various phenomena; and the result of the whole has certainly been a vast accumulation of fact concerning the Asiatic peninsula. Mr. Hamilton, indeed, has not been so severe in rejecting superfluous, as he has been industrious in collecting the necessary and principal facts connected with his object. Many repetitions consequently occur; and the same descriptions of climates, soils, agricultural processes, irrigations, and superstitions, which belong to one province, are frequently given again in another, which differs in geographical nomenclature but otherwise partakes a common nature. Hence a considerable condensation might yet be accomplished by mapping the country more statistically; dividing it merely into inundable and hilly districts, and describing once for all the permanently distinct characters of the two. In some degree this is attempted, but not achieved, by an introductory chapter, which gives a general portraiture of Hindostan; and which is closed by an extensive and well constructed map, including the newest intelligence and specification of the various districts under survey.

Volume I. furnishes a geographical description of the provinces named Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, Oude, Agra, Delhi, Lahore, Cashmere, Ajmeer, Mooltan, Cutch, Gujerat, and Malwah;—it surveys, therefore, the northern region of India.

The total population of the province of Bengal is estimated (p. 47.) at 25,000,000 of inhabitants. Its literary culture is thus traced:

‘ In this province the first rudiments of education are usually given in small day schools, under the tuition of teachers, who are poorly rewarded and little respected, and who are quite different from the Goroos (family priests) who instruct in religion. Children usually go to school at the age of five, and are instructed to read and write at the same time. They begin with tracing letters on the floor with a pencil of steatite, commencing with the consonants, and afterwards joining the vowels so as to form syllables. In five or six months they are thus able to read and write. They then begin to write cyphers on palmyra leaves, with a reed and ink, and at the same time learn numeration, and the subdivision of weights and measures, and of time belonging to astronomy, or rather astrology; the whole occupying eighteen months. After this progress they begin to write on paper, and to learn to keep accounts, and at the same time to multiply, divide, and subtract, with the rule of practice, in which the usual Indian arithmetic consists.

‘ In this scheme of instruction, accounts and arithmetic are divided into two distinct departments; one for agricultural and the other for commercial affairs. When both are learned, the former
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is usually taught first, but not many of the natives acquire that knowledge, or are able to tell how many begahs, or fractions, a rectangled parallelogram contains; for the Hindoo geometry, as far as is known in common practice, proceeds no further. Practical surveyors have no mode of ascertaining the extent of irregular figures, but by reducing them to rectangled parallelograms, in which they are guided merely by the eye or rough estimation; and even in measuring parallelograms they are destitute of any instrument, that can ascertain whether or not all the angles be equal.

In Bengal, parents are generally satisfied with instructing their children in mercantile accounts, and in keeping a very full day or waste book, in which every transaction is carefully recorded, and to which is added a kind of ledger; but their books do not admit of a regular balance like what is called the Italian method. It is only arithmetic, commercial and agricultural, that is taught at school; the application to mensuration and to the keeping of books, either of a merchant or landholder, are acquired in some office or shop, where the youth commences as an assistant, and learns the style and manner of correspondence. The use of the sharp iron style, for writing on bark and leaves, although the original manner of Hindoo writing, has been entirely abandoned, and a reed pen, and a bamboo inkstand, introduced by the Mahomedans, are universally employed, even in writing on the palmyra leaf, which substance is also still used for works of value, being more durable than the paper fabricated in the province. Besides the paper, the natives pay for writing, rather less than one rupee for every 32,000 letters, at which rate the Mahabharat cost sixty rupees; the Ramayuna twenty-four, the Sree Bhagavat eighteen rupees; and other books in proportion to their contents. It is an excellence of the Bengalese language that every letter has a uniform undeviating sound, its pronunciation is consequently remarkably easy. Every fifth consonant has a nasal sound, and every second consonant is an aspirate to that which precedes it. Neither is its idiomatic construction involved or perplexed with genders and irregular verbs, so that there are probably few languages, either ancient or modern, of such easy acquisition. The Bengalese books are mostly single leaved, with a flat board at the top, and another at the bottom, which are tied with cords and wrapped in a cloth.

It has long been remarked, that science and literature are in a progressive state of decay among the natives of India, the number of learned men being not only diminished, but the circle of learning, even among those who devote themselves to it, greatly contracted. The abstract sciences are abandoned, polite literature neglected, and no branch of learning cultivated, but what is connected with the peculiar religious sects and doctrines, or with the astrology of the people. The immediate consequence of this state of things is the disuse, and even actual loss of many valuable books; and it has been feared by many, that unless government interfered with a fostering hand, the revival of letters

among the natives would become hopeless, from a want of books, and of persons qualified to explain them.

'The principal cause of the present neglected state of literature in India is to be traced to the want of that encouragement, which was formerly afforded to it by princes, chieftains, and opulent individuals under the native governments. Such encouragements must always operate as a strong incentive to study, and to literary exertions, more especially in India, where the learned professions have little if any further support. The justness of these observations might be illustrated, by a detailed consideration of the former and present state of science and literature, at the principal seats of Hindoo learning, viz. Benares, Tirhoot, and Nuddea; and the favours conferred, not only by kings and princes, but also by zemindars, on persons who distinguished themselves by a successful cultivation of letters at those places. It would equally exhibit the present neglected state of learning at those once celebrated seminaries, and show that the cultivation of letters is now confined to the few surviving persons who had been patronized by the native princes, and others during the former governments, or to such of the immediate descendants of those persons as had imbibed a love of science from their parents. In 1809, there still existed at the advanced age of 108 years, Jagatnath Tercapan-chana, an eminent pundit, who resided at Tirveny, thirty miles from Calcutta; where, surrounded by four generations of his descendants, in number near 100, he continued to give daily lectures to his pupils on the principles of law and philosophy.

'It is not, however, the national character that is affected by the present neglected state of literature. The ignorance of the natives not only excludes them from the enjoyment of all those comforts and benefits, which the serious cultivation of letters is calculated to afford, but, operating as it does throughout the whole mass of the population, tends materially to obstruct the measures adopted for their better government.

'Influenced by the above train of reasoning, the Bengal government in 1811, during the administration of Lord Minto, adopted certain measures for the encouragement of erudition and science among the natives, by a system of liberal salaries, and donations to the different colleges and seminaries; but it is greatly to be doubted whether, under existing circumstances, it be practicable to reimburse the natives with a taste for their own peculiar style of learning, or, if practicable, desirable. With the prospect before them of a long and intimate connection with the European powers, it would probably prove a much more advantageous measure, to direct their views towards European literature and languages, as tending both to the improvement of their morals, and leading ultimately gradually to the tranquil adoption of a superior religion. With this object, the Hindoo and Mahomedan languages might be suffered by imperceptible steps to descend gently into the grave, and take rank among the dead with the Greek and Latin.'

Similar remarks again occur in the description of the native colleges at Benares.

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The district of Silhet is one of the least known: but Mr. H.'s account of it may deserve transcription, as tending to arouse the attention of the public functionaries, and to excite fresh efforts for the better survey of the territory.

' This district is situated at the eastern extremity of Bengal, and principally between the 24th and 25th degrees of north latitude. To the north and east it is bounded by a lofty ridge of mountains, inhabited by many wild tribes; on the south by Tipperah and Mymunsingh; and on the west it has Mymunsingh. In 1784, it contained 2861 square miles, yet the revenue was only 239,924 rupees. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, this district is described as follows:— "Sircar Silhet, containing eight mahals, revenue 6,681,621 dams. This sircar furnishes 1100 cavalry, 190 elephants, and 42,000 infantry. Sircar Silhet is very mountainous. It furnishes many eunuch slaves for the seraglio."

' This is the most easterly of the British possessions in Hindostan, being within 350 miles of the province of Yunnan in China. Although so near to this rich empire, no intercourse whatever subsists between them, nor has the intervening country ever been explored, or even penetrated, beyond a few miles from the frontier. The boundary mountains are a continuation of those which extend from Aracan and Chittagong to an unknown latitude north, and rise with singular abruptness from the plains below. Of the country beyond these we are almost entirely ignorant, having only native sources of information to rely on, at all times very defective, and in this case particularly so, as the informants belong to different savage tribes, but little removed above the brute creation. According to the best of these, there is reason to conjecture that the intermediate country between Silhet and China is a mountainous uncouth region, covered with jungle, destitute of navigable rivers, without towns or villages, and wholly trackless except to the savage aborigines. These difficulties, however, are by no means insurmountable, and it is to be hoped that the Bengal government will not much longer incur the reproach of leaving so contiguous a country unexplored. Probably a small military expedition would be best adapted to effect this purpose.'

In the account of Cashmere, information is given relative to the shawl-trade, and to the wool of the Tibet goat, which may deserve the attention of those manufacturers in this country, who are laudably employed in imitating this costly garment of luxury.

Oojein, a city which was once the seat of science, and is still considered by the Hindoo geographers as the first meridian, is thus noticed:

' Oojein, in the Malwah province, and the modern capital of the dominions subject to the Sindia Maharattas. Lat. 23° 11' N. long. 75° 52' E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Oojein is a large city on the banks of the Sopra, and held in high veneration by the Hindoos. It is astonishing that sometimes this river flows with milk."

'The city of Oojein, called in Sanscrit, Ujjayini and Avanti, boasts a most remote antiquity. A chapter in the Hindoo mythological poems named Puranas, is devoted to the description of it, and it is mentioned in the Periplus of the Erythrean sea, as well as by Ptolemy, under the name of Ozene. It is also considered by Hindoo geographers and astronomers, as the first meridian. The modern town is situated about a mile to the southward of the ancient, which is said to have been overwhelmed by a convulsion of nature, about the time of Raja Vicramaditya, when it was the seat of arts, learning, and empire. On the spot where the ancient city is supposed to have stood, by digging to the depth of fifteen or eighteen feet, brick-walls, pillars of stone, and pieces of wood of an extraordinary hardness are found. Utensils of various kinds are sometimes dug up in the same places, and ancient coins are frequently discovered.'

The second volume includes a geographical description of the provinces of Gundwana, Orissa, the Circars, Khandesh, Berar, Beeder, Hyderabad, Aurungabad, Bejapoor, Canara, Malabar, Cochin, Travancore, the Belaghaut, Mysore, Coimbatoor, Salem and Barramahall, and of the Carnatic; and it consequently surveys the southern region of India, emphatically called the Deccan.

In the province of Orissa stands the temple of Juggernaut, to which 1,200,000 pilgrims are reputed to proceed annually. — A village is thus constituted by native law:

'Geographically considered, a village here is a tract of country comprising some hundred, or some thousand, acres of arable or waste land; politically viewed, it resembles a township or corporation. Its proper establishment of officers and servants consists of the following descriptions: —

'1. The potail or head inhabitant, who has a general superintendence of the affairs of the village, settles disputes, attends to the police, and collects the revenue within his village.

'2. The tallia and totie: the duty of the first consists in gaining information of crimes and offences, and in escorting and protecting travellers from one village to another; the duties of the latter appear to be confined immediately to the village, where he guards the crops and assists in measuring them.

'3. The boundary man, who preserves the limits of the village, or gives evidence respecting them in case of dispute.

'4. The curnum, or village accountant.

'5. The superintendant of the tanks and water courses, who distributes the water therefrom for the purposes of agriculture.

'6. The Brahmin, who performs the village worship.

'7. The school-master, who is seen teaching the children to read and write on the sand.

'8. The calendar Brahmin, or astrologer, who proclaims the lucky and unpropitious periods for sowing and threshing.

'9. The smith and carpenter, who manufacture the implements of agriculture, and build the dwelling of the cultivator.

'10. The

‘ 10. The potman or potter; the washerman; the barber; the cowkeeper, who looks after the cattle; the doctor; the dancing girl, who attends at rejoicings; the musician; and the poet.

‘ These officers and servants generally constitute the establishment of a Hindoo village. In addition to the portion of land appropriated to the pagoda establishment, to the local officers of government, and to the village servants, they were each entitled to certain small shares or perquisites from the crops of the villagers. Under this simple form of government the inhabitants lived from time immemorial. The boundaries of villages have been but seldom altered; and though the villages have been sometimes injured, and even desolated by war, famine, and disease, the same name, the same limits, and even the same families, have continued for ages. The inhabitants give themselves no trouble about the breaking up and division of kingdoms; while the village remains entire they care not to what power it is transferred, or to what sovereignty it devolves, its internal economy still remaining unchanged.’

Under the head Aurungabad, a good account of the Maharatta people and constitution is given: but we have not space to transcribe, or even to specify, the various instructive excursions of the author. Suffice it in general to observe that his statistical information is usually comprehensive, and the effect of much research; and that it also frequently suggests plans of reform which deserve the consideration of the administrative authorities. In describing Pondicherry, (for this French settlement is noticed at considerable extent,) Mr. H. observes that the system (p. 441.) of policy adopted by the French from the beginning violated the prejudices of the natives. M. Dupleix destroyed their temples; M. Lally forced them to work in the trenches, and to do other military duty repugnant to their castes; and the old French government had prohibited the residence of a single family which was not Christian within its boundaries. To this intolerant and interfering spirit is attributed in a great degree the decline of the French power, and to a contrary system the elevation of the British on its ruins.

The island of Ceylon occupies a separate chapter; after which the author reverts to northern Hindostan, and describes the region between the Sutuleje and Jumna rivers, Burwal, Kumaon, Nepaul, and the Sikkim dominions.

An appendix concisely surveys the contiguous but independent provinces of Baloochistan, Afghanistan, Tibet, Bootan, Assam and the adjacent states, and finally Ava and the Birman empire; as if it began to be felt that these countries also will one day repose under the shade of the British sceptre, which, like the banyan-tree, drops tap-roots from

the extremities of its branches, and incloses continually within wider arcades of foliage the circle of its original station of shelter.

In the chapter on Tibet, we are told that the religious institutions of that country are supposed to have been derived from Benares :

‘ It is a general belief throughout Tibet, that the arts and sciences had their origin in the holy city of Benares, which the inhabitants have been taught to esteem as the source of both learning and religion; the Company's old provinces are consequently held in high estimation. The Gangetic provinces are called Anakhenk or Anonkhenk, and by the Tartars Enacac, which appellation has been extended so as to comprehend all India. It is asserted that the art of printing, that engine of good and evil, has from a very remote period been practised in Tibet, but so limited in its use, by the influence of superstition, that not the slightest improvement has ever taken place. Copies of religious works are multiplied, not by moveable types, but by means of set forms, in the nature of stereotype, which they impress on thin slips of paper of their own fabrication. The letters run from left to right as in Europe. The printed and written character appropriated to works of learning and religion, is styled in the language of Tibet the Uchin; that of business and correspondence the Umin. Their alphabet and character they acknowledge to be derived from the Sanscrit. When visited by Captain Turner in 1783, they were found acquainted with the existence of the satellites of Jupiter and the ring of Saturn.

According to tradition, the ancient promulgators of their faith proceeded from Benares, and after having advanced to the east, over the empire of China, are said to have directed their course towards Europe. The funeral ceremonies performed by the Calmucks, near the river Wolga, in Russia, on the decease of their chief Lama, are nearly the same with those that take place at the funeral of a Gylong in Bootan, on the borders of Bengal, which shows the prodigious diffusion of the Lama religion and Hindoo system. Their own instruction in science and religion, the Tibetians refer to a period long prior to the existence of either in Europe; but Sir William Jones considered them as Hindoos, who had engrafted the heresies of Buddha on their own mythological religion. The principal idol in their temples is Mahamuni, the Buddha of Hindostan, who is worshipped throughout the vast Tartarian plains under an infinite variety of names. Durga, Cali, Ganesa with his elephant head, Cartikeya (the Hindoo Mars), with many other Brahminical deities, have also a place in the Tibet pantheon. The same places of popular esteem or religious resort are equally respected in Tibet and Bengal: Allahabad (or Prayag), Benares, Durjodun, Gaya, Saugor island, and Juggernaut, being objects of devout pilgrimage, but the two last are deemed of pre-eminent sanctity, while Gaya, the birth-place of their great legislator, is only of secondary rank.

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Those who are unable to perform the pilgrimages in person acquire a considerable degree of merit by having it effected by proxy. Within their own limits, the peak of Chumularee, probably the loftiest of the Himalaya, is greatly venerated both by the Buddhists and Brahminical Hindoos, who resort there as votaries to pay their adorations on its snow-clad summit. No satisfactory explanation has ever been obtained of the peculiar sanctity ascribed to this mountain; but it may be observed in general, that every singular phenomenon in nature becomes an object of worship to the Hindoos, whether it be a snowy mountain, a hot well, the source or conflux of a river, a lake, or volcano.

'The inhabitants of Tibet, differing from most other nations (with the exception of the Lamas), either totally neglect the bodies of their dead, or treat them in a manner that appears highly barbarous. The inferior Lamas are consumed by fire, and their ashes deposited in little metallic idols, but common subjects are treated with much less ceremony. Some are carried to lofty eminences, where, after having been disjointed and the limbs divided, they are left a prey to ravens, kites, and other carnivorous birds; but in more populous parts the dogs also participate in the repast.'

The Birman language (p. 776.) is referred to a Chinese stock, but is written with a Sanscrit alphabet.

An index is affixed, which forms an alphabetical gazetteer of Hindostan; and a glossary explains many of the native terms, which it was necessary to employ in the text. A chronological table of the accession of the successive Governors-General of Hindostan assimilates them to European sovereigns; whom, indeed, they mostly transcend for extent though not for duration of power.

This is certainly a work of high merit; less amusing perhaps than instructive, and less adapted for continuous perusal than for occasional consultation: yet it forms the completest collection of the information that is extant concerning the most important sections of the British empire; and, as it must become essential in libraries of reference, it will, no doubt, in every fresh edition, attain to fuller comprehension and neater arrangement.

One reflection forces itself on the attentive reader; viz. that the Europeans are very unaccommodating to oriental customs, manners, and opinions. In dress, we might think that the very nature of the climate would tend to suggest some visible assimilation; yet even the stuffed neckcloth is retained by the European with arrogant and self-tormenting obstinacy. Why not aim at gaining the affections of the natives by every approximation of usage and appearance which can conveniently be adopted? Why not facilitate the settlement of various classes of Europeans, some of whom are

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more plastic than others? Why not permit the European to acquire property in land, whose spirit of enterprize would soon convert the tiger-jungles into rice-grounds? Why not also provide more numerous colleges of education, in which might be disseminated the acquirements of science and the sympathies of literature?

ART. III. *A Journey in Carniola, Italy, and France, in the Years 1817 and 1818; containing Remarks relating to Language, Geography, History, Antiquities, Natural History, Science, Painting, Sculpture, Architecture, Agriculture, the Mechanical Arts, and Manufactures.* By W. A. Cadell, Esq. F.R.S. London and Edinburgh. With Engravings. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 554. 424. 1l. 16s. Boards. Hurst and Co. 1820.

A CONSIDERABLE difference prevails between the majority of books of travels and the present volumes; which are not the production of a virtuoso who writes for a display of taste, nor of a fashionable *oisif* who wanders about to "kill time," nor of an invalid who repairs to a warmer atmosphere in quest of health, but of a man of reading and observation, who resorts for the sake of knowledge to a country of great interest in past history, and of no inconsiderable existing importance in commercial and political prospects. Though not possessing those attractions which, whether they are to be ascribed to personal adventure or to the delineation of scenes in private life, form the charm of so many publications of the kind, Mr. Cadell's journal will be found a valuable addition to our stock of geographical information, the attention of the author having almost always been directed to objects of utility. Without making any apology for printing a narrative of travels in countries already so often described, and without any record of his peregrinations previously to his arrival at Trieste, Mr. C. begins his narrative from that city, and enters at once on the topics—such as the state of trade, the geological structure of the district, its products, manufactures, and antiquities—which engage his attention at most of the towns and regions subsequently visited.

It often happens that we have reason to complain of the deficient *indices* of books: but in that respect Mr. C. appears determined to leave nothing undone, having subjoined to his work a circumstantial enumeration of its contents which occupies fully fifty pages, and an alphabetical index on a still larger scale. From these formidable *tables de matières* we abstract a brief notice for the use of our readers.

Vol.

Vol. I. Description of Trieste; Venice; Padua; Vicenza; Verona; Mantua; Bologna; Florence; Pisa; Leghorn: Journey by Perugia to Rome; Description of that Capital; its Monuments of Antiquity; its modern Edifices; its Paintings and Collections; its Environs.

Vol. II. Journey from Rome to Milan; Urbino; Rimini; Imola; Modena; Reggio; Parma; Placentia; Lodi; Milan; its Edifices; Paintings; Collections; Manufactures; Pavia; Lake of Como; Lake Maggiore; the Ticino; the Dora Baltea; Turin; Journey to Chamberri; Geneva; Lyons; Paris.

Appendix. Antique Marbles; List of Books and Maps descriptive of Italy, Carniola, and the Countries visited by the Author; Heights of various Mountains, Towns, and Positions in Italy, Switzerland, and France; Population of Italy; its Geology.

Trieste being seldom visited by either fashionable or literary travellers, and consequently little known to the readers of their publications, we embrace this opportunity of giving a brief description of it. The population, at present about 40,000, increased greatly in the course of the 18th century: the enlargement of the harbour, owing to the solicitude of the Austrian government to extend its commerce, dates from 1753; and its trade is considerable, consisting in the export of the produce of the mines of Hungary and Idria (in Carniola) as well as of the manufactures of part of Switzerland and Germany, particularly the hardware of Styria. The town, at least the new town, is built on a level tract of ground; the harbour is easy of access, and is protected from the south by a mole; and the roadstead has good anchorage. Ship-building is carried on here to a considerable extent; and the oak used for it, the growth of the neighbouring country, is said (by what we consider as rather questionable authority) to be of twice the duration of the timber employed in most other parts of Europe. Coal is found at a short distance; and, provisions being cheap, wages are sufficiently low to enable the manufactures of paper and some other articles to stand a competition with the products of our superior machinery. The salt-works of Trieste are of great extent, and situated at the distance of three miles from the town. The general language of the place is Italian, German being comparatively little understood; the manners and mode of living are also Italian; and a traveller coming from the north is struck with the plantations of olives, the dark-green cypresses, the fig-tree, the vine, and other indications of a southern climate.

After

After Trieste, Venice, Padua, Verona, Mantua, Bologna, Florence, and Leghorn, are described circumstantially; and the account of Rome, with its antiquities, its modern edifices, and its environs, occupies nearly half of the first volume. We extract from it a passage which will suffice to convey an idea of the plan of the author, and of the mixture of historical and topographical information which he presents:

‘ *Rome: Capitoline Hill.* — Of the temples and magnificent buildings that adorned the ancient Capitol, scarcely a vestige remains. The modern Capitol consists of three buildings, occupying three sides of a quadrangle. These three buildings were erected about 1540 by Paul III., Farnese, after a design of Buonarrotti.

‘ *Equestrian Statue.* — In the middle of the square formed by the three buildings is the celebrated bronze equestrian statue of Marcus Aurelius, which Michel Agnolo admired for its animated expression.

‘ *Palace of the Senator.* — Of the three buildings, that in the middle, called the Palace of the Senator, contains a great hall, where courts of justice are held, and a prison. The senate of ancient Rome continued under the emperors long after its power was gone, but in course of time even the nominal senate ceased to exist. Rome was taken five times during sixteen years, from 536 to 552, in the reign of Justinian; twice by Belisarius, twice by Totila the Gothic king of Italy, and once by Narses, Justinian’s general. By these sieges the senators of Rome were dispersed, the senate ceased to exist, and never again assembled as a council.

‘ In 1144, the inhabitants of Rome revived a semblance of the senate. In 1278 Nicholas III. claimed the temporal sovereignty of Rome, founding his claim on the alleged donation of Constantine to the Bishop of Rome, and established the annual election of the senator of Rome. The senator, whose duty is confined to the administration of justice, must be an alien, and of a place at least forty miles from Rome. In 1818, Prince Corsini, a Florentine, was elected senator. From the belfry of the senator’s palace is a good view of Rome.

‘ *Museum of Sculptures.* — The building to the right of the senator’s palace contains the Capitoline Museum, consisting of a noble collection of statues which was begun by Clement XII., Corsini, about the year 1735: it is the second collection in Rome after the Museum of the Vatican.

‘ *Ancient Plan of Rome.* — The walls of the staircase leading to the principal floor are covered with the fragments of an ancient plan of Rome, engraved on white marble, on a very large scale. This plan anciently formed a pavement, which was broken when the empire and every thing in the city went to ruin, and the pieces, disjointed and confused, were employed to incrust the wall of the church of Santi Cosmo e Damiano, formerly the temple of Remus. From some letters of an inscription on one of the fragments, it is supposed to have been engraved in the time of Septimius Severus.

‘ In

In the reign of Paul III., Farnese, about 1540, the fragments were collected and placed by that Pope in the Farnese palace. An engraving and description of the disjointed and imperfect fragments of this ancient plan, leaving out the pieces that represent only private buildings, is published by Bellori. (*Fragmenta vestigii veteris Romæ ex lapidibus Farnesianis, cum notis Bellorii, in Græv. Thes. Ant. Rom. tom. iv.*) So many are lost that the remaining fragments of this plan do not join, and, therefore, are not sufficient to give the idea of the whole extent of the city. Of the names there are only a few words that are entire, as ludus magnus, theatrum Arcelli; theatrum, affixed to the plan of another theatre. Of most of the other names only a few letters remain. A marble fragment of another ancient topographical plan, serving for the distribution of water from the aqueducts, is published by Fabretti. (*Fabretti de Aqueductibus, Diss. III. in Græv. Thes. Ant. Rom. tom. iv.*)

The work bears, in its general character, a considerable resemblance to the above passages; containing scarcely any personal adventure, but a variety of observations on points of history, statistics, and literary biography. Without possessing the attraction either of anecdote or of suavity of style, it is extremely clear and well arranged; each topic having its separate paragraph, indicated as in the above extract by an italic title. Mr. C. appears to have a partiality for arithmetical calculation, and to take pleasure in recording particulars which escape the notice of the majority of travellers; such as the height of mountains, the width of rivers, and the elevation of the sites of towns built on rising grounds. He gives (vol. ii. p. 258.) not only an itinerary of his route, a table of the population of Italy, and a list of that of the chief towns, but a computation of heights in Italy, Switzerland, and other countries, collected from various authorities; of which we have selected a few of the most interesting.

	English Feet above the Sea.
The Lake of Geneva, - - - -	1,230
The Lake of Constance, - - - -	1,095
The Dole, highest mountain of the Jura, -	5,523

Heights of different Parts of the Alps.

Limits of perennial snow on the Alps in lat. 46.	9,393
Saint Michel, the summit of Mont Cenis, -	9,243
Mont Blanc, - - - - -	15,636
Monte Rosa, - - - - -	15,527
Summit of the cone of the Great St. Bernard,	9,367
St. Gothard, at the highest part of the road into Italy, - - - - -	6,805

Rome :

	Feet above the Tiber.
Rome: The top of the Janiculine hill, -	960
Aventine hill, near the priory of Malta,	117
Palatine hill, on the floor of the palace of the Cæsars, - - -	139
Capitoline hill, at the west end of the Tarpeian rock, - - -	118
The Esquiline hill, at Santa Maria Maggiore Calandrelli, - -	163

	Feet above the Sea.
Monte Corno, called Il Sasso Grande, the highest of the Appennines, 30 miles north of the Lake of Celano, in Abruzzo, - -	10,119
Il Cimone di Fanano, in the duchy of Mo- dena, the highest summit of the northern Appennines, - - -	6,971
Montagna della Sibtila, 26 miles east of Fo- ligno, - - -	7,495
Mount Vesuvius, mouth of the crater, whence the fire issued in 1776, - - -	3,938
Mount Etna, - - -	11,946
Monte Rotondo, in Corsica, - - -	8,687
Paris, mean height of the Seine above the sea,	36½
Thames at London, mean height above the sea when the water is 15½ feet below the pave- ment in the left hand arcade at Buckingham stairs, - - -	43

With regard to rivers, Mr. C. observes that the width of the Tiber at Rome (somewhat more than 100 yards) is considerably less than that of the Seine at Paris: but the volume of water is probably larger, if we take into account the greater depth and strength of the current. The Rhone at Lyons is wider than the Seine at Paris, and much more rapid. The course of the Saône is slow and tranquil. The Po at Turin, though scarcely fifty miles from its source, is a considerable river, varying in width from 100 to 150 yards; and at Placentia, about one hundred miles below Turin, swelled by the Dora Baltea, the Ticino, the Tanaro, and other streams from the Alps and Appennines, it rolls along a great stream of the width of three hundred yards.

The route of Hannibal over the Alps is a question of too great interest to escape the attention of a classical inquirer: but Mr. C., like many other travellers, seems not to have arrived at any conclusive opinion on the subject. It is admitted

ted that one of the first towns entered by the Carthaginians in Piedmont was Turin, and the Alps extend in a long line from north to south about thirty miles to the west of that city: but it is still doubtful whether the passage of the army was made by Mont Cenis to the north-west, Mont Viso to the south-west, or Mont Genevre, which is almost due west of the Piedmontese capital: though the last conjecture is supported by the powerful authority of D'Anville.

Enough has now been said to apprise our readers of the nature of the subjects treated in the present work: but we must observe that we should have recommended a different title-page, and have designated it "A Journey in Italy, with remarks on Carniola and France;" for Carniola is mentioned only in the first and France only in the last chapter, all the rest being descriptive of the northern and central part of Italy. The typographical execution of it is more elegant than correct: several of the errors which had caught our eye, and rather surprized us in the perusal, are inserted in the long list of *errata*: but others remain which cannot with propriety pass unnoticed, whether the blame be chargeable on the author or the printer; such as stating (vol. ii. pp. 70. 320.) the battle of Lodi to have taken place in 1795, and the population of Lyons as amounting (vol. ii. p. 207.) to 230,000, or twice its real number. The belief expressed (vol. i. p. 495.) that the population of antient Rome surpassed that of any modern city is the result, doubtless, of an inadequate attention to the principles of population, and to the habitual exaggeration of those who have no access to official returns. — On the whole, however, these volumes convey a great portion of statistical information; and the historical remarks, though brief, are useful.

The high price of this publication is owing to the number of engravings and etchings, which exceed thirty, and are descriptive of the scenery, the buildings, the bridges, and the machinery, observed by the author in the course of his travels. A few are of expensive execution, but the greater number are plain, and claim attention merely as correct delineations of the objects described. Of the former are the elevations (vol. i. p. 112.) of antient walls, and (p. 428.) the houses of the nobility, called by Italian courtesy *palaces*. Of the plainer description are the sketches of some humbler objects, such as (vol. i. p. 231.) the pavement of Florence. Several of them are taken from drawings made by Mr. C. on the spot; others are selected from the works of different artists: but almost all were compared by the author in his journey with the objects which they represent. Seven of the plates are delineations of
archi-

architectural monuments, drawn to one scale, and consequently illustrative of the relative size and proportions of the buildings. The work is closed by a map of the middle and northern part of Italy; which, though not of a large size, shews clearly the principal roads and mountains, and in several places the nature of the mineralogical structure of the latter.

ART. IV. *An Essay on the Instruction and Amusements of the Blind.* With Engravings. By Dr. Guillé, &c. &c. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Souter.

ART. V. *The Art of instructing the Infant Deaf and Dumb,* by John Pouncefort Arrowsmith. Illustrated with Copper-plates, drawn and engraved by the Author's Brother, an Artist born Deaf and Dumb. To which is annexed the Method of educating Mutes of a more mature Age, which has been practised with so much Success on the Continent, by the Abbé de l'Epée. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Taylor and Hessey.

THE first of these publications is a translation of a work in every respect interesting and valuable: its author's situation, as director-general and principal physician to the Royal Institution for the Blind at Paris, having afforded him ample opportunities, which he has not neglected, of making observations on the manners and character of the blind, on the employments most suitable for them to exercise, and on the best mode of communicating instruction to them. In the commencement of the Essay, we have considerations on the character of the blind; and the chapter devoted to an examination of their moral state appears to us curious and important. We think that the following extract will not prove unacceptable to our readers:

‘ The want of sight not only deprives the blind of the sensations which that organ gives to those who have sight, but also extends its influence over all their thoughts, which it modifies and distorts; all their ideas, therefore, are false or contrary to the notions we have, because, as Condillac has well observed, coloured nature has no existence for them; it is blindness which plunges them in the ignorance in which they are of decorum, and which deprives them of the sentiment of social decencies. Modesty, which is one of the graces of youth, is to them almost an imaginary being, though they have a sort of timidity, which, it is true, belongs perhaps rather to fear than shame, but which greatly augments their embarrassment in certain circumstances.

‘ Unfortunate in all their relations with other men, they are very imperfectly acquainted with those emotions which draw us towards each other, and decide our affections and attachments. Sensibility has

has not, for them, those charms which make us place it in the rank of the sweetest as well as the most amiable virtues. Unhappy creatures! their situation, which forces them to be on their guard against all the world, makes them often place in the same class their benefactors and their enemies; and without meaning it, perhaps, they appear ungrateful. It is these motives which make them form connections with the blind rather than with those who have sight, whom they consider as a different class of beings. Is it that they apprehend our inconstancy, or distrust our superiority, or else find more points of association among each other?

‘ They will easily be excused, when we reflect on the number of signs that are lost to him who is deprived of sight. Those external motions, which are painted so expressively on the countenance, that faithful mirror of the soul, do not exist for them. They are continually, in their relations with other men, as one is with an individual whom one knows only by correspondence; we know perfectly well that he exists, but we cannot conceive how.

‘ If not very open-hearted, on the other hand, nature gives them an ample compensation by endowing them with a prodigious activity of imagination and an insatiable desire of knowledge, which, in them, is a substitute for many affections that they want, or at least for the expansion which such sentiments might have. This state of their imagination banishes *ennui*, which is one of the least inconveniences of blindness; for we meet with very few blind persons who have not formed some sort of occupation for themselves, and with complete success.

‘ Obligated to judge of men and things intrinsically, they must necessarily obtain truer results than us; moreover, as I have repeatedly said, they see things in a more abstract manner than we, and in questions of pure speculation are less subject to be deceived; for abstraction consists in separating in thought the sensible qualities of bodies from each other, and error commonly springs from a defective separation. They have no need, like us, to guard themselves against the illusions of the senses, since they cannot be seduced by appearances: the charms of the countenance, the richness of clothes, the sumptuousness of apartments, the dignity of office, and the prejudices attached to birth, are nothing to them: it is the moral man whom they appreciate. How much more certain must their judgments be, in this respect, than ours!

‘ A soft and sonorous voice is to them the symbol of beauty. They know pretty exactly, by the compass of the voice, what is the stature and size of the person who speaks, the largeness of the room they happen to be in, &c. But with what nicety of discernment must these attentive observers judge, by this means, of the temper and of certain shades of character which escape us, because we have not the same interest in remarking them? By a sort of anticipated intuition, they see the soul through its covering.*

‘ There

* * Sir John Fielding, a relation of the author of *Tom Jones*, who lived in our time, was blind; but this did not prevent him from filling.

' There are, in fact, more relations than has hitherto been supposed between the divers degrees of the vocal organ and the disposition. In this point of view, one might form a curious comparison between animals and man, by forming the first link of the chain by those savage beasts, the terror of the forest, and continuing it down to those peaceable animals who are born in our enclosures to feed and clothe us. This study, very worthy of a philosopher, would lead, I am persuaded, to some useful results.

' The blind have been accused, in general, of atheism, very unjustly. Those who have advanced this strange assertion were either not sincere, or had some interest in propagating an error which might prop up some others. Why give such an idea of those who have the greatest want of the consolations which religion showers on the unfortunate and unhappy? Do they not know in part the works of the Creator? The taste of fruits, the sweetness of flowers, the song of birds, and the vicissitude of the seasons; must they not make them sensible of the existence of the admirable Architect of the universe?

' Nevertheless, I will not justify them entirely from the reproach of impiety, which has been made against them with some foundation. I am more convinced than any body that that law, anterior to all sensible impressions, which God gave to man on drawing him out of nothing, is engraved in their hearts; but I am obliged to confess also, that they do not always follow the impulse of that interior voice, which approves and consoles when we do good, and torments and gnaws when we do evil: conscience, in short, has not that influence over their actions which it has over ours. It is easy to deduce the consequences that flow from a similar state, and what may be their ideas on good and evil, and on the notions we have acquired.

' I have never known a blind atheist; but if we happened to meet with one so unfortunate as not to acknowledge the Creator in his works, we might repeat to him what Dr. Holmes formerly said to the celebrated Saunderson, who had expressed some doubts on this point: *Put your hand on yourself: the structure of your body will dissipate so gross an error.*

' Like us they wish for what is the most difficult to obtain. All blind people have a decided taste for independence and liberty. Nothing, however, is more contrary to their real interests than the use of a thing which they could only abuse. The art of those, therefore, who are with them, consists less in satisfying them than in making them believe they are satisfied. By this means we avoid exasperating the natural defects they may have, all of which appertain more or less to their infirmity, which cannot be imputed to them as a crime.

' Their self-love, which is the most prominent of all their defects, and, perhaps, the origin of all the others, is compensated

filling, with great distinction, the place of *chief magistrate of the police-office*, in London. He kept in his mind the description of many hundred thieves, and was never mistaken when they were brought before him.'

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by some valuable qualities ; their invincible patience and extreme tenacity in their enterprises render them capable of surmounting the greatest obstacles without ever being disheartened.

Part II. contains short biographical notices of those blind persons who have distinguished themselves in the sciences and in the arts. This portion of the work contains some trifling errors, and does not exhibit any thing very novel. — Part the third develops the means adopted at the Royal Institution in Paris for the instruction of the blind : most of which, we believe, have been long familiar to the conductors of similar institutions in this country : but the chapters relative to their reading, to their modes of printing for the blind, and to the books for their use, with those on the study of languages and mathematics, contain much information that well deserves the attention of all who are engaged in the education of these unfortunates. We cannot enter on any of these details, however, because we wish to indulge ourselves with extracting a part of the chapter respecting the means of communication between the blind and the deaf and dumb ; a subject which appears to us as interesting as it is singular :

‘ During the time,’ says Dr. Guillié, ‘ that the institutions of the blind and of the deaf and dumb were united in the convent, formerly of the Celestines, the pupils of the two establishments, brought together by their habitation, but separated by their infirmity, endeavoured to establish points of contact between each other. The heads of the two houses, far from disapproving of this connection, favoured it, being convinced that it could not but be advantageous to creatures, whom a sort of confraternity of misfortune led to seek each other.

‘ Both had already received some instruction ; for I cannot imagine what mode of communication could be established between the blind and the deaf and dumb, who had learnt nothing. Their situation, I suppose, would be like that of a child without experience, that must be shown every thing. I am therefore going to speak, not of the blind in a state of nature, but of the blind who have been taught.

‘ When the blind had learnt that the deaf and dumb spoke to each other in the dark, by writing on their back, they conceived that this method might succeed also with them, as in fact it did. This new language soon became common to the two families ; the deaf and dumb, who found it tiresome to have written on their back what they could see perfectly well, attempted to make the blind write in the air, as they do themselves : this means, which was as long as the former, appeared to them more uncertain, as the blind wrote ill in that way ; they therefore preferred the characters the latter made use of ; but as these characters cannot be easily transported, the dumb taught the blind their manual alphabet,

bet, and the one by sight, and the other by touch, easily found by the inspection of their fingers, the letters that are formed by their different combinations. Nevertheless, this manual alphabet, only exhibiting words, slackened conversation amazingly. They felt the want of a more rapid communication, and the blind learnt the theory of the signs of the deaf and dumb: each sign thus representing a thought, the communication was complete. This study was long and tedious, because it supposes a pretty complete knowledge of grammar; but the wish to talk got the better of all these difficulties, and in a few months, the signs being perfectly well known, took place of all the other means till then employed. The exchange between them was performed in the following manner:

‘ When the blind had to speak to the deaf and dumb, he made the representative signs of his ideas, and these signs more or less exactly made, transmitted to the deaf and dumb the idea of the blind.* When the deaf and dumb, in his turn, wished to make himself understood, he did it in two ways: he stood with his arms stretched out and motionless, before the blind person, who took hold of him a little above the wrists, and without squeezing them, followed all the motions they made; or if it happened that the signs were not understood, the blind man put himself in the place of the deaf and dumb, who then took hold of his arms in the same manner, and moving them about, as he would have done his own, before a person who could see, he filled up the deficiencies of the first operation, and thus completed the series of ideas which he wished to communicate to his companion.

‘ But the degree of instruction of the scholars not being the same, they could not make use of the signs equally well; and supplied them by all the means which their inventive imagination could suggest. It was an extraordinary sight to behold a pantomime acted in the most profound silence by 150 children, anxious to understand each other, and not always succeeding; tired out with long and useless attempts, and often ending, like the builders of Babel, by separating without being able to understand each other; but at the same time not without having given reciprocal proofs of bad humour, by striking as the deaf do, or screaming like the blind.’

Mr. Arrowsmith’s volume consists of three separate treatises, one by himself on the instruction of the infant deaf and dumb, occupying 90 pages; another by the Abbé de l’Epée, on the method of educating mutes of a more advanced age, 120 pages; and another by the same writer on

* It is unnecessary to observe that the difficulty of these communications is increased by the want of the signs of the physiognomy, and of a part of the gestures and motions of the body, which the blind man cannot appreciate, and of which he has not even an idea; for, in speaking, the blind remain without motion and expression.’

the method of instructing the deaf and dumb to articulate, which fills 70 pages. The last two were published so long ago as the year 1801: but, the impression having been exhausted, they are now re-published by Mr. Arrowsmith on account of what he considers as their intrinsic value. His own work is principally grounded on the experience of his brother Mr. Thomas Arrowsmith; who was born deaf and dumb, and is now an artist, and whose portrait, drawn by himself, forms a frontispiece to the volume. Mr. Thomas Arrowsmith, in spite of his natural defect, was sent to a school in common with other children, where he learned to write; and he seems to have been early taught by his friends the meaning of words, by shewing to him the things signified. It is not expressly stated by whom he was initiated in grammar, which is a really difficult part of the instruction of the deaf and dumb: but we presume that he was the pupil of the Abbé de l'Epée, from the terms in which that gentleman is mentioned. The mode of teaching the meaning of words is very clearly explained in the two subsequent passages:

‘ To teach the deaf and dumb child (after he has become a little acquainted with the letters) the names of things which can be shewn to him by means of the alphabetical counters, place the letters TABLE, and point to the table, letting them remain for some time, desiring the child to find the letters and point them out to you in the book; which if he does, it will prove he knows them. Then desire him to notice, and recollect the letters forming the word, which may be done by a sign, putting your finger to your forehead, the seat of remembrance, which the child will comprehend as a token for him to recollect the letters, and what they represent, when he is questioned at some future period as to the name, by shewing him the table without the letters. When you have placed the letters TABLE, as above, desire the child to place the small t a b l e, which will greatly assist his memory; and when he has done this, hustle the counters together, and desire him to find and place the letters as you did, until he is correct; and be sure to encourage him for his assiduity and attention. The child will be pleased, both at home and at school, with every additional information; and his school-fellows will be equally pleased and happy to render him every assistance in their power, and in many instances will do so better than the master or mistress. The table being made of wood, he can see the substance and quality of it as well as any child, but still he is at a loss to know their names; and so would you if you had not been told. The table being made of mahogany, and the child seeing that the chairs and chest of drawers are of the same substance and quality, it is very natural for the child to point to them for further information, not knowing but they are also called tables; the child is then told their names, in the same manner, with the counters, as

the word table, and by the same means the child may be taught to know a deal table from any other, and in like manner, the name, quality, and use of every thing he can see, before he can write or has learned the manual alphabet. Suppose something was shewn to you which you had never seen before, what would be the first question you would ask? Why, the name of it, no doubt. In the same manner is the curiosity of the deaf and dumb led, when they know the name of one thing, to inquire the name of every thing they can see; and this curiosity or desire of knowledge is innate with us all, more or less.

‘The recollection of things is much easier than that of words, even to us who can hear; consequently, as a deaf and dumb child advances in his learning, if you can explain to him the meaning of any thing by a sign, he will remember it better than by words; for instance, suppose a person called upon you whose name was Wood, and the child asked you the person’s name, if you pointed to a piece of wood, he would instantly understand his name was formed by the same letters, and write it down Wood. The same if a person called of the name of Stone, by showing the child a stone he would comprehend the meaning, and never forget the person’s name. When such names occur, the child will often make some pleasant remark on them, by explaining to you, that with stone you may build a house, and mend the roads; and with wood you may make a fire. By this means he exercises his faculties, and if he forgets to make any remark on a similar word, you can do it for him; by comparing one word with another, he will discover the different sense and meaning, which a word formed with the same letters may express.

‘Many useful words may be taught the child at this early age by signs, that you cannot do by means of figures; such as *yes, no, good, bad, rich, poor, go, come, right, wrong, up, down, white, black, or any colour, walk, ride, run, trot, gallop, quick, slow, tall, short, stand, sit, kneel, eat, drink, sleep, rise, fall, heat, cold, little, great, much, more, what, which, who, this, that, I, you, him, her, they, &c.*; all which, and many others, are to be explained, as will be found in the Abbé de l’Epée’s Instructions, by natural signs, which the sense of any person will dictate.’—

‘Having the deaf child before you, and the book with the alphabet in your hand, point to the letter C, and desire, by a sign, the child to find and bring you the counter with C upon it; the child obeys you. In the same manner you proceed for A and T. The three letters being put close together, you have a word before you, which is easy to be explained by showing the child the CAT, an animal which children are in general fond of playing with, and a word, in consequence of its shortness, easy to be remembered. Then desire the child to bring you the letters CAN; in the same manner then the letters EAT, and the letters MEAT. Here the child has four words before him, one of which he knows the meaning of; the other three he does not. The child looks about for information, while you get a bit of meat; the instant the child sees the meat, which he knows by sight, and the use of

as well as any child, the name of which you can explain by showing him the letters and the meat, he naturally expects you are going to give it to the cat; then point to the cat and to your mouth at the same time, making your jaws to move as in the act of mastication; then by pointing to the word EAT, and the motion of the jaws, the word eat is fully explained.

' You see the necessity of proceeding in the most plain and simple method, depending much upon the most significant signs and gestures, suitable to the capacity of the learner, for a medium of communication. There is still another word for the child to learn, much more difficult than the others. A verb is always difficult to teach and explain, particularly when the child is so very young.

' Give the meat to the cat, and when it is eating it, point to the words CAT, CAN, laying a stress upon the word *can*, and showing the child that the cat *can eat*; but if the child does not correctly understand at first the meaning of the word *can*, he will soon find the difference between *can* and *cannot*.

' For the next lesson, then desire the child to bring you the letters DOG, another animal which a child is fond of; you show the child the dog, and he will instantly comprehend the meaning of the word. Muzzle the dog, and get some meat; then desire the child to give you the letters CANNOT EAT MEAT, and by laying the meat down, the child will perceive the dog does not do as the cat did, which will tend to explain more fully the word *can*, when at the same time it explains to the child the word *cannot*; and by unmuzzling the dog, the child will see him eat, which explains that the dog can eat meat as well as the cat. But should not the child understand correctly the meaning of the word *can*, do not trouble him too much at first with an explanation. He has done well, if he understands the words *cat, eat meat; dog, eat meat*. In the same manner, you may teach the child, *I eat meat, you eat pye; they eat fish*, or any thing else you please; and thus imperceptibly lead him to a knowledge of nouns, pronouns, verbs, &c. before he can write; so that when he goes to school for that purpose, and to learn grammar, he will be prepared to learn the different parts of speech as well as any other child, and with equal ease. The child will be so much entertained with those lessons, that, instead of considering learning a labour, he will fly to his book with the greatest pleasure and avidity; and you will be astonished to see the rapid progress he will make at so early an age.'

A letter written by Mr. Chippendale, of Winwick, gives a curious account of Mr. Thomas Arrowsmith's sensibility to music through the medium of the touch.

' " Some years back, probably five or six, a young gentleman of the name of Arrowsmith, a member of the Royal Academy at Somerset-House, of what degree I cannot remember, came down into this country, and resided some months in Warrington, in the exercise of his profession as a miniature and portrait painter. He was quite deaf, so as to be entirely dumb. He

had been taught to write, and wrote an elegant hand, in which he was enabled to express his own ideas with facility; he was also able to read and understand the ideas of others expressed in writing. It will scarcely be credited, that a person thus circumstanced should be fond of music, but this was the fact in the case of Mr. Arrowsmith. He was at a gentleman's glee club, of which I was president at that time, and as the glees were sung, he would place himself near some articles of wooden furniture, or a partition, door, or window-shutter, and would fix the extreme end of his finger nails, which he kept rather long, upon the edge of the wood or some projecting part of it, and there remain, until the piece under performance was finished, all the while expressing, by the most significant gestures, the pleasure he experienced from his perception of the musical sounds. He was not so much pleased with a solo, as with a pretty full clash of harmony; and if the music was not very good, or, I should rather say, if it was not correctly executed, he would show no sensation of pleasure. But the most extraordinary circumstance in this case is, that he was most evidently delighted with those passages in which the composer displayed his science in modulating his different keys. When such passages happened to be executed with precision, he could scarcely repress the emotions of pleasure he received within any bounds; for the delight he evinced seemed to border on ecstasy.

“ This was expressed most remarkably at our club when the glee was sung, with which we often conclude; it is by Stevens, and begins with the words, ‘ Ye spotted snakes,’ &c. from Shakespeare’s *Midsummer’s Night Dream*. In the 2d stanza, on the words, ‘ Weaving spiders come not here,’ &c. there is some modulation of the kind above alluded to; and here Mr. Arrowsmith would be in raptures, such as would not be exceeded by one who was in immediate possession of the sense of hearing.

“ These facts are very extraordinary ones; and that they are facts can be proved by the evidence of six or eight gentlemen who were present, and by turns observed him accurately.”

On account of the advantages derived from competition, Mr. Arrowsmith argues in favour of educating children with such a natural defect in common with other children, and speaks with too much asperity of institutions for the separate education of the deaf and dumb. That such persons may be advantageously taught writing at a common school, we think, is probable, and it is desirable that they should occasionally mix in the studies as well as the exercises of other children: but we apprehend that it will always be necessary for them to have much taught by a system and discipline exclusively appropriated to themselves.

Of the Abbé de l’Epée’s writings, a judgment has already been pronounced by us and by the public. We are sorry that Mr. Arrowsmith has reprinted the work on articulation, as we are satisfied that intelligence can be imparted to
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the deaf and dumb, and they may be instructed how to communicate their thoughts to others, much better without any such medium. It is a painful process to them; and, when they have acquired such articulation as can be taught them, it is also most painful either for their friends or for strangers to listen to them.

We cannot dismiss these two volumes without observing that well conducted institutions for the relief of the blind, the deaf and dumb, and the insane, produce good almost without any mixture of evil. The sufferings of the individuals themselves are, as far as may be, mitigated; where capacity has been given, their talents are drawn out; and, as long as any sensibility remains, their benevolent affections must be exercised and improved. The science of medicine, and the studies of human nature and the human mind, are also materially advanced; and, above all, the charity of the community has an opportunity of exercising itself, without being confronted by those objections which are advanced against other institutions, from the tendency to increase the ills of an excessive population, or to promote pauperism and the sense of dependence. Every accession to our knowledge, concerning the mode of treatment most conducive to the comfort or improvement of persons so afflicted, cannot but be hailed with gratitude by the humane; and those, especially, who have observed by what gradual steps all sound knowledge is advanced, will be best able to appreciate details of processes and results of experiments which to a superficial observer may appear either obvious or insignificant.

ART. VI. *Marino Faliero*, Doge of Venice. An Historical Tragedy, in Five Acts. With Notes. The Prophecy of Dante, a Poem. By Lord Byron. 8vo. pp. 280. 12s. Boards. Murray. 1821.

THIS long expected tragedy has at last made its appearance: but the public did *not* expect, perhaps, to find it constructed on the French model, and therefore more properly to be styled a poem than a play. We shall see whether this exotic can thrive in our soil; and how far the foreign graft can be made to assimilate with the sturdy indigenous stock of our English drama. In the mean time, we are sorry to give our opinion that this piece manifests the faults without the beauties of its model. It has the nakedness of plot, the uniformity of character, the tedious declamation, and the lengthened monologue, which belong to its archetype; unredeemed by that judicious choice of fable, that heroic elevation

of sentiment, and those moving conflicts of passion, which characterize the French school. We must confess, therefore, that we are disappointed: for we could not but anticipate from the throbbing numbers and striking delineations, which seem to be the property of its noble author, and have so long commanded our admiration, something more impressive and subduing than this polished and stately but frigid composition.

We regret, for Lord Byron's sake, that he has forced himself into a comparison with so many great models, by invading this department of poetry. It would have been better for his reputation if he had confined himself to narrative, description, and sentiment: to those melancholy yet thrilling strains which infuse a sort of delicious poison into the soul; and which, while they sing of crime, desolation, and despair, make us sigh to think how celestial might have been the music of such a harp, if tuned to themes better suited to the frailty and wants of our terrestrial nature. With his Lordship himself, however, rests the responsibility of this perversion: heavier, we confess, than we should like to feel on our own shoulders; for we differ in opinion with those who separate poetry from morals, and think that they have no business or relationship with each other. Lord Byron, by the might of his genius, has put them asunder: (and sweet to him be the unenvied triumph!) but we still venture to assert that an original congruity or assimilation prevails between them, which conduces to their mutual dignity and embellishment; and that the poet is bound by a sacred obligation to cement and support this most natural and holy alliance. Our greatest poets, indeed, seem to have recognized this obligation: they met with no difficulty in adapting all good things to poetical purposes: they deemed it no debasement of their genius to consecrate it to purity and truth: they found nothing dull, insipid, and ignoble, in subjects which, according to the creed of the Byron school, are insusceptible and barren of poetry; and, in those enduring monuments of their fame which posterity delightedly transmits from generation to generation, religion and virtue sit enshrined amid the wealth and magnificence of the human imagination.

We shall offer to our readers a sketch of the story, before we enter farther on the particulars of the play. The time is the year 1355. Michel Steno, a young Venetian nobleman, one of the council of Forty, having offered some unseemly gallantries to a lady in the train of the Dogaresa, for which he was turned out of the apartment, vents his pique by scrawling on the ducal chair an aspersion on the honour of the Dogaresa

Dogaressa herself. The Doge complains of this indignity to the Forty, who sentence the offender only to a month's imprisonment; which does not satisfy the Doge, the fever of whose wrath impels him to enter into the designs of a body of malcontents, who meditate the destruction of the nobles and a revolution of the state. One of the conspirators, anxious to save the life of Lioni, a patrician, his benefactor, warns him mysteriously of his danger: when the sagacity and spirit of this young noble produce a discovery and detection of the scheme, and the Doge and his confederates expiate their treason with their lives.

The first act introduces us at once to the subject of the Doge's discontent; the sentence on the offender; the consequent burst of indignation received into the confidential bosom of the nephew, Bertuccio Faliero; and finally to his compact with the leader of the conspirators, Israel Bertuccio.

A reflection that instantaneously occurs to us is that the Doge's wrath is disproportioned to the offence. We cannot pity wrongs that seem "the coinage of his brain," and "the bodiless creation of ecstasy." Poor Othello, we are convinced, would willingly have exchanged grievances with him, too happy in the assurance of his wife's fidelity. It is really to be regretted that "so much good passion should be wasted," for the Doge is extremely eloquent in pourtraying his griefs, and nothing is wanting to secure our sympathy but that the injury should be not imaginary. This, therefore, we consider as a radical defect in the drama, and we deem it no justification that the facts are according to history. Verisimilitude is the law of the fine arts; and the poet, with all other artists, is bound to represent naturally. As there are things in nature not well adapted to painting, so are there passages in history unfit for the drama. The poet may take what subject he pleases, whether fact or fiction: but, if his facts are improbable, he had better let them alone than waste his talent and industry in fruitless efforts to make them subservient to his purpose.

Act ii. brings us acquainted with the Dogaressa, Angiolina; who, so far from sharing the phrenzy of her lord, does her utmost to allay it. She forms a striking contrast to the other heroines of the poet; who here seems to wish to redeem the mischief that he may have done in his former voluptuous portraits of females, by the austere virtue of this lady: for her passions, if she has any, are so rigidly schooled, that we can scarcely persuade ourselves to regard her as representing "any mortal mixture of earth's mould." So dutiful a daughter and so correct a wife ought certainly to be held up as a model to

to her sex ; " and bless'd are those whose blood and judgment are so well comingled," that they can follow in her steps without too severe a self-sacrifice : — but what is to become of the tender impassioned creatures who cannot stifle in their bosoms that instinct which seems to proclaim our affinity to the angels ; — that worship of the heart which is the involuntary homage that we pay to the good and the beautiful ? — It is doubtless very difficult to blend in the female character the angelic with human attributes ; and, if Lord Byron's ladies have hitherto been mere women, our present heroine has too much of the angel. Perhaps Belvidera united both. To avoid the parallel, however, we return to the second act, which closes with a meeting of the four chief conspirators ; whose characters, considering that they all talk in heroic measure and rhetorical figures, are somewhat diversified. Israel Bertuccio is lofty : Dagolino and Calendaro are sanguinary ; and Bertram is soft and compunctious. Israel, however, is a being of a higher order than his companions, and makes us lament the sophistry by which crimes are transformed into virtues, and murder and carnage are disguised in the semblance of patriotism.

The third act presents to us the Doge alone at the place of appointment with Israel, who joins him ; and whence he is conducted by that leader to the rest of the band, to confirm his league with them. In this act, the poet has exerted all his power over the pathetic ; and we were certainly moved by the struggle between Faliero's better feelings and his revenge, when some natural scruples make him reluctant to murder several of his former most particular friends. The ideal nature of the injury, however, recurs to us, and we shut our sympathy against the sufferings of the self-tormentor.

Act iv. gives the detection of the conspiracy ; and here again is a defect in the story, since it is difficult to conceive the folly and rashness of Bertram's risk in warning Lioni of his danger, and the ignorant infatuation which made him expect to be permitted to retire unmolested after such an alarm. The interest of the story reaches its highest point of excitement in this act ; and the doubt that hangs over the fate of the cabal, before the sounding of the signal-bell, is certainly a moment of awful suspense.

The fifth act consists of the trial and execution of the criminals ; and in the bold and lofty bearing of these deluded men, we recognized those master-touches of the poet which we have admired in former productions. The Doge's character is sustained to the end : haughty, inflexible, and fierce, he dies invoking curses on Venice and her tyrant-senators.

To

To these observations on the plot and the character of this drama, we will add some specimens of what we consider as its chief beauties of sentiment, imagery, and diction: regretting the unavoidable injustice of neglecting many more, with perhaps equal claims to selection. — We have already spoken of the Doge's struggle of feeling between old friendships and his desire of revenge. When the conspirators ask him whether any of the patricians are worthy of being saved, he enumerates four, and thus continues:

- ‘ All these men, or their fathers, were my friends
Till they became my subjects; then fell from me,
As faithless leaves drop from the o'erblown flower,
And left me a lone blighted thorny stalk,
Which, in its solitude, can shelter nothing;
So, as they let me wither, let them perish!’ —
- ‘ All these men were my friends; I loved them, they
Requited honourably my regards;
We served and fought, we smiled and wept in concert;
We revell'd or we sorrow'd side by side;
We made alliances of blood and marriage;
We grew in years and honours fairly, till
Their own desire, not my ambition, made
Them choose me for their prince, and then farewell!
Farewell all social memory! all thoughts
In common! and sweet bonds which link old friendships,
When the survivors of long years and actions,
Which now belong to history, soothe the days
Which yet remain by treasuring each other,
And never meet, but each beholds the mirror
Of half a century on his brother's brow,
And sees a hundred beings, now in earth,
Flit round them whispering of the days gone by,
And seeming not all dead, as long as two
Of the brave, joyous, reckless, glorious band,
Which once were one and many, still retain
A breath to sigh for them, a tongue to speak
Of deeds that else were silent, save on marble —’

Israel Bertuccio observes, when the Doge still wavers,

- ‘ You pass'd their sentence, and it is a just one.
‘ *Doge.* Ay, so it seems, and so it is to *you*;
You are a patriot, plebeian Gracchus —
The rebel's oracle — the people's tribune —
I blame you not, you act in your vocation;
They smote you, and oppress'd you, and despised you;
So they have *me*: but *you* ne'er spake with them;
You never broke their bread, nor shared their salt;
You never had their wine-cup at your lips;
You grew not up with them, nor laugh'd, nor wept,
Nor held a revel in their company;

Ne'er

Ne'er smiled to see them smile, nor claim'd their smile
 In social interchange for yours, nor trusted
 Nor wore them in your heart of hearts, as I have :
 These hairs of mine are grey, and so are theirs,
 The elders of the council ; I remember
 When all our locks were like the raven's wing,
 As we went forth to take our prey around
 The isles wrung from the false Mahometan ;
 And can I see them dabbled o'er with blood ?
 Each stab to them will seem my suicide.'

We next select a part of a monologue by Lioni, who is just returned from an evening-entertainment, but has time for his long soliloquy before Bertram's intrusion.

' A goodly night ; the cloudy wind which blew
 From the Levant hath crept into its cave,
 And the broad moon has brighten'd. What a stillness !
[Goes to an open lattice.]

And what a contrast with the scene I left,
 Where the tall torches' glare, and silver lamps'
 More pallid gleam along the tapestried walls,
 Spread over the reluctant gloom which haunts
 Those vast and dimly-latticed galleries
 A dazzling mass of artificial light,
 Which show'd all things, but nothing as they were.
 There age essaying to recall the past,
 After long striving for the hues of youth
 At the sad labour of the toilet, and
 Full many a glance at the too faithful mirror,
 Prankt forth in all the pride of ornament,
 Forgot itself, and trusting to the falsehood
 Of the indulgent beams, which show, yet hide,
 Believed itself forgotten, and was fool'd.
 There youth, which needed not, nor thought of such
 Vain adjuncts, lavish'd its true bloom, and health,
 And bridal beauty, in the unwholesome press
 Of flush'd and crowded wassailers, and wasted
 Its hours of rest in dreaming this was pleasure,
 And so shall waste them till the sunrise streams
 On sallow cheeks and sunken eyes, which should not
 Have worn this aspect yet for many a year.
 The music, and the banquet, and the wine —
 The garlands, the rose odours, and the flowers —
 The sparkling eyes and flashing ornaments —
 The white arms and the raven hair — the braids
 And bracelets ; swanlike bosoms, and the necklace,
 An India in itself, yet dazzling not
 The eye like what it circled ; the thin robes
 Floating like light clouds 'twixt our gaze and heaven ; —
 All the delusion of the dizzy scene,
 Its faults and true enchantments — art and nature,

Which

Which swam before my giddy eyes, that drank
The sight of beauty as the parch'd pilgrim's
On Arab sands the false mirage, which offers
A lucid lake to his eluded thirst,
Are gone.'

In the succeeding dialogue with Bertram, Lioni thus designates the conspiracy :

' I know that there are angry spirits
And turbulent mutterers of stifled treason
Who lurk in narrow places, and walk out
Muffled to whisper curses to the night ;
Disbanded soldiers, discontented ruffians,
And desperate libertines who brawl in taverns ;
Thou herdest not with such : 'tis true of late
I have lost sight of thee, but thou wert wont
To lead a temperate life, and break thy bread
With honest mates, and bear a cheerful aspect.
What hath come to thee? in thy hollow eye
And hueless cheek, and thine unquiet motions,
Sorrow and shame and conscience seem at war
To waste thee ?'

The whole of this dialogue is excellent: but we must hasten to the curse pronounced on the Doge by a priest whom he had insulted many years ago; and which he repeats to his wife in their parting moments, as a spell that predestined the crime by which he falls.

' He turn'd to me, and said, " The hour will come
When he thou hast o'erthrown shall overthrow thee:
The glory shall depart from out thy house,
The wisdom shall be shaken from thy soul,
And in thy best maturity of mind
A madness of the heart shall seize upon thee;
Passion shall tear thee when all passions cease
In other men, or mellow into virtues;
And majesty, which decks all other heads,
Shall crown to leave thee headless; honours shall
But prove to thee the heralds of destruction,
And hoary hairs of shame, and both of death,
But not such death as fits an aged man."
Thus saying, he pass'd on. — That hour is come.'

After the condemnation of the Doge, Steno expresses his regret for his own misconduct, and says to him and the Dogressa,

—— ' with full contrition
I crave, not pardon, but compassion from you,
And give, however weak, my prayers for both ;'

to which Angiolina's reply is a fine piece of eloquent disdain:

—— ' Pardon is for men,
And not for reptiles — we have none for Steno,

And

And no resentment ; things like him must sting,
 And higher beings suffer : 'tis the charter
 Of life. The man who dies by the adder's fang
 May have the crawler crush'd, but feels no anger :
 'Twas the worm's nature ; and some men are worms
 In soul, more than the living things of tombs.'

We have thus endeavoured to do justice, though perhaps too concisely, to the beauties of this tragedy : — but the sum of our opinion is that it is destitute of the higher interest which would have been excited by a more judicious plot, while a certain spirit of dissertation interrupts and retards its progress. We do not object to it as unfit for representation, for which it was not designed, and because we agree with Lord Byron that, in the present state of our theatrical taste, the judgment of a public auditory is by no means infallible : — our animadversion applies to it as a dramatic poem ; and, in this confined view of it, the action is heavy and unprogressive. The personages reason and discourse when they ought to act. For instance, in the most awful crisis of his fate, the Doge has leisure to dabble in nice and problematical cases from Roman history. He says that Bertram

— ' will be stamped in story
 With the geese in the Capitol which gabbled
 Till Rome awoke, and had an annual triumph.
 While Manlius, who hurl'd down the Gauls, was cast
 From the Tarpeian.
 ' *First Signor.* He aspired to treason
 And sought to rule the state.
 ' *Doge.* He saved the state,
 And sought but to reform what he revived.
 But this is idle —.

So it is ; and out of all keeping and consistency that he should have found time to moot the point, to descend from the dignity and sullen pride of misfortune, and to play the part of a garrulous and feeble casuist.

Still, as a poem, this production is marked with the Rembrandt tints of Lord Byron's genius. It does not command our tears to flow, for it makes no appeal to those finer sensations of the heart in which our sympathies reside. *Naturæ imperio gemimus* : — but to weep with the misfortunes of the Doge would be treason to our natural affections. The gloomy and gigantic passions here alone occupy the scene.

" *Due fere Donne, anzi due Furie atroci
 Ira e malinconia.*"

Some literary chit-chat has already taken place about *plagiariisms* in this play : — but we meddle not with this inferior question.

question. We have often seen allegations of this nature carried to a ridiculous excess; and it is difficult to say how far the unavoidable recollections of a poetical mind will create apparent imitations, or indeed how far minds of kindred bent and import must think of the same subject in a similar way, and express their thoughts in parallel language. It might, however, tend to the production of some legitimate rules of criticism on this head, if an examination of the productions of writers of nearly equal genius, on the same subject, but composing in different languages, and ignorant of the language of each other, were pursued with the view of tracing a similarity of thoughts without the possibility of their being borrowed.

Annexed to this tragedy is the Prophecy of Dante, a rhapsody which has many of the characteristics of Lord Byron's manner; and in which Dante is supposed, between the conclusion of the *Divina Commedia* and his death, to see in prophetic vision the future fate of Italy. By adopting this plan, the poet had an unfettered choice of all that has happened in that country during the ensuing centuries; for the prophecy of the fifteenth century becomes matter of history in the nineteenth. Little originality, therefore, is manifested in the scheme: — but the chief singularity of this poem is the metrical experiment of adapting the terza rima of Dante to our stiff and unyielding versification; an experiment which has not succeeded, and which has aggravated a fault too incident to the compositions of Lord Byron, — we mean the habitual inversion and the dislocated construction of his sentences. It contains, however, one or two noble passages; among which we particularly refer to the description of Italy bursting from the brow of the Alps on the eye of the traveller, as highly picturesque and beautiful. We are tempted also to quote the prophecy which shadows forth the two great Italian bards, Ariosto and Tasso:

‘ But in a farther age shall rise along
 The banks of Po, two greater still than he;
 The world which smiled on him shall do them wrong
 Till they are ashes, and repose with me.
 The first will make an epoch with his lyre,
 And fill the earth with feats of chivalry:
 His fancy like a rainbow, and his fire,
 Like that of heaven, immortal, and his thought
 Borne onward with a wing that cannot tire;
 Pleasure shall, like a butterfly new caught,
 Flutter her lovely pinions o'er his theme,
 And Art itself seem into Nature wrought
 By the transparency of his bright dream. —
 The second, of a tenderer, sadder mood,

Shall pour his soul out o'er Jerusalem ;
 He, too, shall sing of arms, and Christian blood
 Shed where Christ bled for man ; and his high harp
 Shall, by the willow over Jordan's flood,
 Revive a song of Sion, and the sharp
 Conflict, and final triumph of the brave
 And pious, and the strife of hell to warp
 Their hearts from their great purpose, until wave
 The red-cross banners where the first red cross
 Was crimson'd from his veins who died to save,
 Shall be his sacred argument.'

ART. VII. *Helen de Tournon* : a Novel. By Madame de Souza.
 Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards.
 Longman and Co. 1821.

A DEEP and melancholy interest pervades this little tale. It is full of sadness and suffering ; and, as we follow the painful narrative, we unconsciously anticipate the desolation of its conclusion. Yet it is the simplest of all possible stories ; that of a young heart, driven by cruelty and misconstruction to despair and death. It owes very little of its interest to the brilliancy of the writer's imagination, or to variety of incident : it asks no aid of the terrible, and claims no assistance from the marvellous or the romantic, but is an artless appeal to the purest yet most passionate affections of the heart. Perhaps, after all, the highest genius is displayed in weaving a story of this kind, which necessarily depends for success on the writer's power over the great sources of feeling, and abandons the adventitious stimulus which splendor of description and extravagance of character always yield. We are glad that this novel has been well received by English readers, because it is a proof that the public taste is not entirely perverted by the relish for strong excitement. Accustomed, indeed, as we have been to feast our fancy with these high-seasoned and poignant meats, we could not at first appreciate the full beauty of so unadorned a tale : but, as we gradually proceeded to the developement of the story, we gave the writer full credit for the skill and feeling displayed in it.

Madame de Souza has, indeed, here presented a finely touched sketch of human hopes blighted and withered, and human affections crushed ; and when we have ceased to gaze on it, it leaves a tender and melancholy impression on the spirit. Scarcely more than one burst of happiness occurs in it : but for one moment the sun does shine out brightly and powerfully, and then all the rest is darkness and shade. If we

mistake

mistake not, the French have lately displayed a deeper sense of feeling in their productions of the fancy, have searched more narrowly into the heart, and have delineated its true movements with a more masterly hand, than they were formerly accustomed to do. That tone of factitious feeling, which often characterized their novels, has yielded to more correct and higher sentiments: the consequence, no doubt, of their superior intellectual condition, and of their comparative freedom from the thralldom of court-vices. The study also of English literature in France has not been without its effect. The improving circumstances of a people soon become evident in their literature, for the events which operate on the public mind must necessarily exert a proportionate influence over individual intellect. We should rejoice to see the literature of France assume a loftier situation than it at present occupies; and we make this observation without any unpatriotic feeling: for the fame of one nation can never have its foundation in the debasement of another; and that patriotism is indeed miserably short-sighted, which fancies that it can discover any cause for exultation in the weakness or deficiencies of a neighbouring country.

Madame de Tournon, a relation of Catherine de Medici, had been appointed lady of honour to Marguerite the young Queen of Navarre. Her eldest daughter had been lately married to M. de Balan on, the governor of Burgundy; and, on their departure from Paris to the Netherlands, Helen de Tournon, who had just completed her sixteenth year, accompanied them. The character of this governor was little calculated to ensure the happiness of his bride, for he was selfish, harsh, and tyrannical. On their arrival at an antient chateau near Namur, Madame de Balan on was made acquainted with some circumstances of family-history, and was desired to welcome with respect and kindness her brother-in-law, the Marquis de Varambon, one of her husband's younger brothers: for whom, indeed, he was incapable of feeling any regard, but whose prospects at that period ensured respect and attention. Augustus, Marquis de Varambon, who was the very reverse of his brother in disposition, had been adopted by his uncle the Elector of Treves, whose successor it was in his power to become, if he chose to assume the ecclesiastical habit. As yet, however, from conscientious motives he remained undecided; and, on the arrival of his brother at the chateau, he was expected to pay him a visit. Interested by the favourable accounts of the stranger which she heard from every mouth, Helen was listening to the recital of his virtues from an old domestic

of the household, who was pointing out to her the family-portraits, and more especially a very beautiful likeness of her late mistress, who had died young, and who was painted surrounded by flowers, when M. de Varambon unexpectedly entered the room. Helen had been weaving some of the flowers, which the old nurse had gathered to greet her young master, into a garland resembling that which was represented in the picture, and at the approach of M. de Varambon she retired in confusion. He was much struck by her beauty, and still more by the occupation in which she had been employed. Their formal introduction to one another was now only a silent recognition : but the time, which they necessarily spent together, gave them ample opportunities of studying each other's character.

M. de Varambon was far from being happy. His high and somewhat imperious spirit had in his childhood been thwarted and oppressed ; and he was now required either to disappoint the eager hopes of his family, or to adopt a profession at which his feelings revolted. Hitherto, he had found his greatest consolation in succouring the wretched and the distressed, which his fortunate situation had enabled him to do : but he now experienced a more fascinating consolation in the society of Madame de Balançon and her beautiful sister. Helen also became interested in his sorrows, and rejoiced when she could rouse him by her exertions from those fits of dejection which occasionally crept over him. Their feelings were soon united by stronger bonds, for they became fellow-witnesses of suffering, and attended together at the bed of age and sickness ; when Genevieve, the nurse of M. de Varambon in his infancy, was seized with a severe illness ; and the affectionate solicitude of both for the infirmities of this faithful domestic endeared them to each other. Indeed, the influence which Helen was gradually gaining over the mind of M. de Varambon could now scarcely be concealed from herself ; and, if the unkind sarcasms of M. de Balançon at any time awakened the powerful indignation of his brother, one look from her could restore him to calmness and reason. The quick and impetuous temper of M. de Varambon, however, rendered him liable to misconstrue even the most innocent actions ; and, when he was called to some distance from the chateau, on one of his many charitable missions, he was so impatient at being separated from Mademoiselle de Tournon, that he could scarcely find resolution enough to hear the tedious tale of the poor man whom he was relieving. On his return, he found Helen playing at battledore with his younger brother Leopold, a thoughtless and animated youth, whose sole
delight

Delight was the chace. Disappointed at seeing that she had been so cheerfully engaged in his absence, when all his thoughts had been occupied with her, he sate down in silence. His sister-in-law, perceiving that he was displeased, endeavoured to draw from him the cause: but he only replied that he had discovered that a friend, to whom he had given up all the affections of his soul, had been forgetful of him, and was equally indifferent to his presence or his absence. This sentence was overheard by Helen, who was indignant at the injustice of the remark; and the foundation of those mutual misconceptions was here laid, which at last terminated so fatally to their peace.

Nevertheless, the reserve which this little incident created between the lovers was soon explained away, though the causes which had led to it still remained; and they were beginning to entertain brighter feelings, when a circumstance occurred to interrupt their felicity. Don Juan of Austria, to whom his brother Philip of Spain had deputed the government of the Netherlands, passing on his journey near to the chateau of M. de Balançon, announced an intention of paying him a visit. All the inventive genius of the castle was consequently put into requisition, to supply amusements for the illustrious guest; and Mademoiselle de Tournon gave it as her opinion that a ball might be easily arranged. Her lover heard this proposal with surprise and displeasure, dancing being an amusement of which, in consequence of his ecclesiastical views, it was not allowable for him to partake. The Prince however arrived, the ball was prepared, and in course Don Juan claimed the hand of the beautiful Mademoiselle de Tournon. In the mean time, M. de Varambon shut himself up in his apartment in darkness and solitude, but was unable to exclude the gay sounds of the music which tortured him. Suddenly, the gardens were illuminated; and from his window he beheld the splendid company spread themselves over the lawns. Don Juan accompanied the two sisters: but speedily Helen returned to the chateau, and stopped for one moment before the windows of M. de Varambon's apartment, as if he alone occupied her thoughts. His feelings, as he gazed, experienced a sudden revulsion; and from the desolation and jealous disappointment with which his spirit had just been torn, he was elevated to the most exquisite hopes.

Helen could now no longer be insensible to the interest which M. de Varambon had gained in her affections; and, struggling between duty and love, she at one time resolved to avoid him, and at another determined openly to tell him

that it was impossible for her to receive his addresses without her mother's permission. Fortified by this last resolution, she walked out into the park, concluding that she should there meet M. de Varambon as usual. He was struck by the coldness of her manner, and in his agitation and alarm a passionate declaration of love escaped his lips. He entreated her to allow him at least to hope, and his voice almost assumed the accent of prayer. Helen wept, and could only beg him to confide every thing to her sister. "And will you contradict nothing that I choose to tell her?" he eagerly asked. Helen replied in a low tremulous voice, "Nothing." — "Even were I to assert that you would deign to associate your destiny with mine?" — "I cannot echo your words," said she, hastening away: "address yourself to my sister."

Numerous difficulties still intervened to separate the lovers; and Madame de Tournon refused to countenance the addresses of M. de Varambon until his brother, as head of the family, should ask the hand of her daughter. The brothers, in the mean time, had quarrelled, in consequence of M. de Balançon's expressions of anger on hearing that the Marquis had determined to renounce the ecclesiastical life. His letter to Madame de Tournon, therefore, was not likely to conciliate her; and the answer was an immediate requisition for her younger daughter to come home. The parting of the lovers was such as might be conceived under such circumstances.

Soon after the return of Mademoiselle de Tournon to Paris, she was introduced to the young Queen of Navarre, who appeared much attracted by her beauty and simplicity; and with whom Helen immediately became such a favourite, that she was carried by her Majesty to the court of the Queen-mother, where her appearance drew forth surprise and admiration. She particularly excited the attention of M. de Souvre, master of the wardrobe to the King; whose reputation as a brave man and a faithful counsellor stood very high with the court and the nation. Touched by the melancholy sweetness of her countenance, M. de Souvre, whenever they met, exerted himself to draw her from her painful meditations, made her acquainted with the usages of the court, and was her guide and her friend. Helen was gratified by the kindness of one who appeared so greatly superior to all the others around her; and Madame de Tournon observed his attachment with pleasure, but refused to allow him to speak of it to her daughter before she herself had announced it. To alleviate the pain which she felt in never being allowed by her mother to hold any communication with her sister, M. de Souvre wrote to the latter, offering to convey any.

any message that might be intrusted to him; and adding that a hope existed in his mind which might serve as an excuse for his interference, were not silence imposed on him. This letter came to the hands of M. de Balançon, who with malignant cruelty immediately dispatched it to his brother, with this remark, "Judge of others, and of yourself!" M. de Varambon was overwhelmed with grief and indignation at the suspicions to which the letter gave rise. Don Juan, who had promised him his protection if he rejected an ecclesiastical life, at this juncture requested the Marquis to accompany him to Paris; but M. de V., wholly devoted to his wounded love, resolved to travel thither alone, and to observe, *incognito*, the conduct of his faithless mistress.

Helen, in the mean time, had been compelled to mingle in all the festivities of the court, in which her heart took no share. A splendid tournament had been appointed by the Queen-mother, in honour of the Austrian prince, and thither Helen attended her patroness the Queen of Navarre. For a moment, the magnificence of the scene repressed her usual melancholy recollections, and she listened with an animated countenance to the explanations which M. de Souvre gave of the Spanish devices, and other decorations of the scene; while he, delighted to observe her cheerfulness, redoubled his attentions. M. de Varambon had now mingled with the crowd; and, foiled in an attempt to address Mademoiselle de Tournon by letter, for his communication had fallen into the hands of her mother, whose cold and cautious reply left him nothing to hope, he had resolved to join the spectators of the joust, that he might at least enjoy the desolate pleasure of gazing at a distance on her whom he seemed to have lost for ever. He did indeed behold her, delighted, as he imagined, with the words and presence of his rival! Unable to bear the torture of this vision, he uttered a piercing cry, and Helen started at the sound; but at that moment the court rose, the crowd retreated, and M. de Varambon was borne along by the current.

In the obscure lodging which M. de V. had chosen, resided also a man who seemed to hold no communication with his fellows: but he had frequently observed M. de V. with an inquisitive glance, and finally took an occasion of addressing him. He professed to be interested in his fortunes, because he saw that he was wretched; whereas, had he been happy, he should have hated him. He related the history of his own misery; stating that he had been and still was addicted to the study of the occult sciences; and that the father of a lady to whom he was attached had required from him

either a renunciation of his unlawful studies, or an abandonment of his daughter's love. Stung by the imperative manner of this demand, he had chosen the latter alternative, and the facility with which his mistress had obeyed the paternal command had raised his indignation to the highest pitch. Hating his kind, himself, and his birth-place, he fled to Paris, where he had obtained considerable credit for his super-human knowledge with the Queen-mother, who never neglected any engine which could work on the minds of others. During a playful conversation at the court, Don Juan expressed himself as an unbeliever in the mysteries of magic, and offered to submit to the scrutiny of any professor of this pretended art. This was an opportunity not to be lost: the Queen-mother sent for Fisiraga, the companion of M. de Varambon; and, communicating a number of state-secrets to him, well fitted to accomplish her designs, she desired him to attend in the apartments of the Queen of Navarre on a certain day, when the sceptical prince was to be convinced.

Fisiraga, having made himself acquainted with the causes of M. de Varambon's unhappiness, conceived that he had now found an opportunity of serving him. He knew that Mademoiselle de Tournon would be attending the court during his interview with Don Juan, and he determined to try whether he could not move her heart, which, he imagined, was alienated from its former affections. M. de V. insisted on witnessing the effect of this appeal, and on accompanying the magician in the character of his attendant, to wait in a passage from which he could see what passed. In their days of hope, he had given to Helen, as a most sacred pledge, the ring which his mother had worn at her death, and previously to the interview he made Fisiraga acquainted with this fact. The minute knowledge which the magician displayed of all the designs and projects of the prince startled his credulity, and, alarmed and displeased, he broke off the conference. Now came the time which was to determine the lover's fate: "Let her who has received a ring of death, as a token of alliance, stand forth," cried the magician. At these terrible words, Helen, unable to controul herself, rushed towards the speaker, forgetting her mother and the court, and the power of love and fear reigning triumphant over every other feeling. M. de Souvre in vain attempted to detain her, and she approached Fisiraga, who in a low tone whispered to her, "I speak in the name of him who is the arbiter of your destiny:—woe be to you if you betray his love!" He then took a mirror and held it before the victim, who screamed as she beheld the features of the Marquis distorted with anger. An icy chillness stole
over

over her : M. de Souvre ran forwards, and she pronounced his name imploringly, adding, "Take me hence : I feel that I am dying." He bore her away in his arms, and threw himself at her feet ; the court seeming to recognize his right to assist her. Fisiraga, exclaiming, "Woe, woe," rushed out to the assistance of his friend ; whom he led away, pale, trembling, and almost lifeless.

The cause of the terror expressed by her daughter was partly conjectured by Madame de Tournon, who, therefore, pressed with more eagerness the suit of M. de Souvre. The Queen of Navarre also interested herself very much in his favour ; so that Helen had to contend both against the importunities of her friends and the assiduities of her lover ; and the cloister alone seemed to afford her protection from a world in which she had found nothing but grief. She remembered her vow to M. de V. when they parted, either to become his, or to dedicate herself to religion ; and now seemed the time when her promise was to be redeemed. While her mind was filled with these thoughts, one of the difficulties which environed her disappeared. M. de Souvre, who had suspected that some other object occupied her affections, took occasion when unobserved to address her, and to express his deep and earnest desire for her happiness. Helen saw her mother's eye fixed on her, and had time only to reply, "I am observed — if you knew how much I wish you to read my heart —" This sentence verified the suspicions of M. de Souvre, and he at length drew from her the secret of her attachment ; from which moment he became to her only an affectionate and faithful friend, anxious for her happiness, and eager to promote it even at the expense of his own peace. By his efforts and intercessions in favour of his rival, therefore, Mademoiselle de Tournon began to hope once more.

M. de Varambon, meanwhile, had retired in indignation and despair to his paternal property, where a distracting and painful illness had followed his disappointment. He had just recovered when he received a communication from Don Juan, requesting him to repair immediately to him at Namur, as the Queen of Navarre and her suite were expected to pass through that town during a tour which they were making. His former affection being still powerful over him, he obeyed the summons, in the hope of once again beholding Helen. Don Juan received the strangers with princely magnificence. Helen, who accompanied the Queen, was animated with the idea that she should possibly see M. de V. in the train of the Prince ; and at the thought her countenance became joyful, and her eyes assumed all their original brightness. They met :
a shudder

a shudder came over M. de V. when he recollected where he had last seen her—in his rival's arms; and yet she now seemed happy! He turned his eyes from her, and seemed endeavouring to avoid her. Helen trembled with astonishment. M. de V. in his blind anger then made a remark which inflicted on her heart a grievous wound. This was more than she could bear. Her lover hurried from her, ashamed both of his anger and his weakness; and Helen, overpowered by her feelings, begged permission to retire. M. de V., the dupe of Madame de Tournon's artifices, notwithstanding the evidence which her daughter thus gave of her affection towards him, still persevered in thinking that she was about to make his rival happy. This idea excluded all explanation; and, under its influence, his reason almost seemed wavering. Still he could not refrain from seeking her presence; where the taunts and reproaches, which he found opportunities of uttering, though unintelligible to others, were bitter indeed to her heart. The hour of the Queen's departure at length arrived, and the court proceeded to the royal yacht, which had been prepared to convey them down the Meuse. Don Juan and his train also were assembled, and Helen was compelled to pass near M. de Varambon. She felt that she saw him for the last time, quitted for a moment the arm on which she was leaning, and approaching him said, "Augustus, I forgive you!" She instantly threw herself into the boat, and was received by one of her young friends, who placed her at a distance from her mother.

The poor Marquis was stupified for a time with his contending emotions. Love, resentment, remorse, all struggled in his heart. At length the veil seemed to drop from his eyes, and he beheld his own jealous cruelty and injustice. He procured a boat and followed Helen: but the tranquil stream mocked his impatience, and the voyage of a few days was equal to a life of misery. At length he arrived at Liege, where the streets were filled with a concourse of people. A funeral procession approached; M. de V. shuddered; and a passing stranger exclaiming, "Poor Mademoiselle de Tournon!" he fell into a swoon, from which he was long in recovering. The funeral moved on, and the chaunters implored the peace of Heaven for her who in this life had known only misfortune and suffering. In the evening, his senses returned, and in his despair he hastened to the church. The crowd had dispersed, and the corpse lay in state in an illuminated chapel. The light guided him: a priest was reciting prayers; and M. de Varambon threw himself at the foot of the coffin. His anguish was terrible: he called on her, and the deep silence
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— of the church was his answer. His brain wandered; he paused, and listened. "Will she then never hear me? never?"
 — The vaults of the church resounded — NEVER!

Those minuter shades of character, which give truth and reality to a work of fiction, cannot be preserved in so slight a sketch as that which we now offer. Yet a strong character marks all the individuals who compose the *dramatis personæ* in this little tale. That of Helen is certainly the most beautiful, while that of M. de Varambon is, perhaps, the most true to nature. Madame de Tournon on the other hand, is perfectly revolting. She possesses all the intrigue of Mrs. Beaumont*, and all the pride and cruel inflexibility of heart which compose the character of Lady Ashton†; forming a terrible personification of despotic domestic power. The exertion of such authority over the mind and the affections of children must have been doubly dreadful, at a period when the prevalence of vice rendered it but too probable that the purest and most innocent heart might be devoted, from motives of *convenience*, to a most wretched and profligate union. — The character of M. de Souvre is high, honourable, and disinterested; while that of M. de Balançon is a counterpart to it in *meanness*, dissimulation, and selfishness. — Marguerite of Navarre is scarcely equal to the conceptions which our imagination had formed of that flower of queens, that royal wit, that facetious beauty: but still we perceive very considerable spirit and truth in the portrait.

By those who are acquainted with the numerous works of Madame de Souza, this novel will not, perhaps, be regarded as inferior to its predecessors; and certainly it is intitled to a very creditable rank among those productions of fancy in which our neighbours abound. It would only be wasting our own time and that of our readers to make any remarks on the style in which the translation is executed, where grace, ease, and natural expression, are but too frequently *compromised*. Perhaps, however, it is as good a dress as we can reasonably expect a French novel to wear on its appearance before an English public.

* See Miss Edgeworth's *Manœuvring*.

† See *The Bride of Lammermuir*.

ART. VIII. *Principles of Political Economy*, considered with a View to their practical Application. By the Rev. T. R. Malthus, M. A. F.R.S. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 600. 18s. Boards. Murray. 1820.

ART. IX. *Lettres à M. Malthus*, &c. &c. By John Baptiste Say, Member of several Academies, and Author of the Treatise on Political Economy. 8vo. pp. 184. Paris. 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz.

Letters to Mr. Malthus, on several Subjects of Political Economy, and particularly on the Cause of the general Stagnation of Commerce. Translated from the French of J. B. Say, &c. &c. 8vo. 4s. Sherwood and Co. 1821.

IF any one subject more than another comes "home to the business and bosoms of men" in a great commercial nation, that subject is Political Economy; and yet, comparatively speaking, it is only of late years that its principles have been investigated, and have received the attention due to their importance. Though raised into a science by the works of the French economists, and of the great expositor of its principles in this country, Adam Smith, it still did not attract such general notice as might have been expected. Adam Smith, indeed, was glibly quoted by debaters on both sides in parliament when it served the purpose of the speaker: but the system which yet prevails of bounties and drawbacks, of encouragements and restrictions in the application of capital, and the complex machinery of taxation, (that *machinery* which is far more formidable to the labourer than any other,) shew how little has been the practical influence of his opinions on those who bowed to him as a master, while they declined to bring his opinions to the test of experience.

The mournful wreath of cypress is but ill concealed under a few flaunting sprigs of laurel; and perhaps it is to the long protracted war with France, full of glory, full of ruin, that we are indebted for the very general attention now paid to this subject. Indeed, the consequent financial embarrassment of the country, its growing debt, and declining agriculture and commerce; its diminished wages of labour and increasing poor; its depreciated revenue and augmenting taxes; with those means left for its resuscitation which happily are beyond the reach of the despoiler, namely, a fertile soil and no ungenial climate for the ripening of its most valuable products; and a population hardy, active, intelligent, and applying to its various manufactures more philosophical, chemical, and mechanical knowledge than is possessed by any other country in the world; these things, and the distressing appearance of industry pining at home for employment, or emigrating to
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find it in the forests of America, may well call into action the energies of every man who has a heart to feel, a head to think, or a hand to execute. To the honour of human nature, such calls are never made in vain. Political Economy, as M. Sismondi well expresses it, is the theory of beneficence: it is an inquiry after the means by which the greatest number of men in a state may participate in the highest degree of that physical well-being which depends on its government; and the two elementary principles, which ought always to be considered in connection by the legislator, are the increase of human happiness in intensity, and its diffusion among all ranks of society. He should pursue that system which is calculated to insure to the poor, as well as to the rich, a participation in the ease, the sweets, and the repose of life: — that system, if it can ever be discovered, which leaves no one in actual want; no one in anxiety about the morrow; no one without the possibility of procuring by his labour the food, clothes, and lodging which are necessary to himself and his family, in order that life may be an enjoyment to him and not a burden. *Accumulation* of wealth in a state, then, is not so much the object of the legislator as the *diffusion* among all its citizens of those enjoyments which wealth represents; and the participation of which, in *some* proportion, industry should always be enabled to procure.

To know what can be done, and how to do it, says Mr. Malthus in an excellent introductory chapter, is beyond a doubt the most valuable species of information: the next is to know what *cannot* be done, and why we cannot do it. The first enables us to obtain a positive good, while the second saves us from the evil of fruitless attempts, and the loss and misery occasioned by perpetual failure. These researches, however, demand more time and application than practical statesmen can give to them; and not having leisure, themselves, then, continues Mr. Malthus, ‘they should not be unwilling, under the guidance of a sound discretion, to make use of the advantages which may be afforded by the leisure of others.’ — The financial and commercial embarrassments, which have laid so heavy a hand not only on this country but on the whole Continent, have in fact induced a great many men, both of practical and of speculative habits, to ‘employ their leisure’ in endeavouring to trace these embarrassments to their sources; to detect the operation of remote and latent causes; to generalize, to simplify, and adapt to practice such rules of political economy as may promote the one great object in view, the amelioration of civil society.

In addition to the elaborate and systematic treatises of Say, Sismondi, and Ricardo, the press has teemed with discussions on particular and detached branches of the science. Having paid due attention to these publications as they have made their appearance, and having very recently and at considerable length examined the valuable publication of Mr. Ricardo, (see *M. R.* vol. xciii. p. 416.) we cannot, in justice to the demand made on our pages by innumerable works of general literature, allow to the single subject of political economy a monopoly of space and attention. We must thus apologize to Mr. Malthus for a briefer notice of his work than its merit demands; for merit it has in an eminent degree, which we are the more prompt and happy to attest from the circumstance of having recently expressed our dissent from his theory of population. — In the present state of the science, and having before us a book of such inestimable value as that of Adam Smith, Mr. Malthus has conceived that an endeavour to settle some important but controverted points may be more useful than an attempt to frame a new and complete treatise; which, indeed, may well be deferred till these discussions have been a sufficient time before the public to allow the separation of the true from the false, and the combination of all the different parts into a consistent whole. To settle controverted points, however, is not a very easy business; as Mr. Malthus soon found by the “Letters” of so eminent a writer as M. Say, in opposition to some of his doctrines.

Mr. M. has comprized the various subjects of discussion under seven chapters. The *first* treats ‘Of the Definitions of Wealth and productive Labour;’ the *second*, ‘Of the Nature and Measures of Value;’ the *third*, ‘Of the Rent of Land;’ the *fourth*, ‘Of the Wages of Labour;’ the *fifth*, ‘Of the Profits of Capital;’ the *sixth*, ‘Of the Distinction between Wealth and Value;’ and the *seventh*, ‘Of the immediate Causes of the Progress of Wealth.’

It is of great importance that a perfect concurrence should be established among political economists in their definition of wealth: yet scarcely any two have agreed what wealth is; and the term, therefore, is frequently offered in one sense and received in another. Mr. Malthus objects to Lord Lauderdale’s definition, namely, “All that man desires as useful and delightful to him,” because it is too extensive, and includes every thing, whether material or intellectual, moral or religious, which contributes to the advantage and pleasure of mankind. An inquiry into the nature of wealth, thus defined, would exceed the boundaries of any single science. Mr. M. therefore approximates to the definition of Adam Smith; and,
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drawing the obvious line which separates material from immaterial objects, he defines wealth to be 'those *material* objects which are necessary, useful, or agreeable to mankind,' and productive labour to be 'that which is productive of wealth thus defined; that is, so directly productive of it as to be estimated in the value of the objects produced.' Perhaps no definition of wealth has been offered, against which a perverse and ingenious logomachist may not raise some plausible objection. It is clear, that the only difference between the definition of Lord Lauderdale and Mr. Malthus is that the latter has added the word *material*; and M. Say contends that this word is no sort of improvement to it. 'What,' says he, bewildering his readers in the mazes of metaphysical subtlety, '*you contend that there are no immaterial products!*'* why, originally there were none else: the very field itself only furnishes production with its service, which is an immaterial product. It serves as a crucible, into which you put a mineral, and out of which come the metal and the dross. Are there any particles of the crucible in these products? No: the crucible is merely the instrument of a new productive operation. Is there any portion of the field in the harvest which grows out of it? I answer again, No.' (Page 32.) After having explained in what manner he considers all labour and all capital as *immaterial* products, he exclaims, 'Every species of revenue is immaterial; yes, ALL: otherwise, the aggregate mass of matter which composes this globe would annually increase, and every year we should have some new *material* revenues. We can neither create nor destroy a single atom: we are only enabled to change their combinations, and all that we can do is *immaterial*. It is VALUE, and that value itself likewise immaterial, which we daily consume, and which enables us to live on from year to year. Consumption is merely a change of form given to matter; or, if you like the expression better, a derangement of form, as production is an arrangement of it. (Page 35.)

With great respect for the talents of M. Say, we can call this little better than metaphysical jargon, perplexing a simple subject. Surely the distinction between material and immaterial things, in the common acceptance of the terms, is plain enough; and nothing but such an explanation could

* M. Say refers to page 49.: but the expression imputed to Mr. Malthus is not to be found either in that page or any other that we can perceive. M. Say must have misunderstood the sense of some passage; at least, we can discover none which bears any thing like such an interpretation.

have obscured it. To tell Mr. Malthus, three or four times, that it is not in the power of man to create or to annihilate a single atom of matter, is either to insinuate that he had asserted the affirmative proposition, or that he is ignorant of what every charity school-boy must often have heard from the pulpit.

To return to Mr. Malthus's definition of wealth. 'A glass of water, when we are thirsty, is the most desirable thing imaginable: it is a *material* object, useful, or agreeable to man; it fulfils, says M. Say, all the conditions of your definition — and yet it is not wealth, at least not that sort of wealth which is the subject of political economy. What, then, does it want to become so? *Exchangeable value.*'* Page 156. It is amusing to hear M. Say now exclaim, after his tirade about the indestructibility of matter, and the immateriality of every species of revenue, 'What, then, is that wealth which comes under the cognizance of this science? *it is that which is susceptible of creation and of destruction,*' p. 157. Mr. Ricardo and Mr. Malthus make a distinction between wealth and value. The former says, Value does not depend on the abundance of agreeable or necessary things, but on the difficulty or facility of their production: the manufacturing labour of a thousand men will always produce the same value, but not the same wealth; because by improved machinery, greater skill, and so on, double or triple the quantity of agreeable or necessary things may be produced with the same labour, the sum of these values remaining the same. The word value has been sometimes considered as having two meanings; one, value in use, and the other, value in exchange. Mr. Malthus admits that it may be questioned whether, in fact, we are in the habit of using the term in the first of these two senses; yet, as we may without impropriety, in a metaphorical if not in a literal sense, talk of the value of a clear spring of water or of a fine air, although no question can arise respecting their value in exchange, he does not deem it worth while to reject the distinction. Stockings do not lose half their power of contributing to the comfort and convenience of the wearer because, by improved machinery, they can be made at half price, or because their exchangeable value is reduced one half. The man, therefore, who now possesses two pair instead of one has twice as much wealth as he had before, *provided that he uses them himself*, but not if he means to exchange them for other commodities.

* We have added the word *exchangeable*, which is not in the original, because the context evidently implies and requires it.

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* When we come to compare objects of different kinds, there is no other way of estimating the degree of wealth which the possession and enjoyment of them confer on the owner, than by the relative estimation in which they are respectively held, evinced by their relative exchangeable values. If one man has a certain quantity of tobacco, and another a certain quantity of muslin, we can only determine which of the two is the richer by ascertaining their relative command of wealth in the market. And even if one country exports corn, and imports lace and cambrics, notwithstanding that corn has a more marked and definite value in use than any other commodity, the estimate must be formed exactly in the same way. Luxuries are a part of wealth as well as necessities. The country would not have received lace and cambrics in exchange for its corn unless its wealth, or its necessities, conveniences, and luxuries taken together, had been increased by such exchange; and this increase of wealth cannot possibly be measured in any other way than by the increase of value so occasioned, founded upon the circumstance that the commodities received are more wanted and held in higher estimation than those which were sent away.

‘Wealth, however, it will be allowed, does not always increase in proportion to the increase of value; because an increase of value may sometimes take place under an actual diminution of the necessities, conveniences, and luxuries of life; but neither does it increase in proportion to the mere quantity of what comes under the denomination of wealth, because the various articles of which this quantity is composed may not be so proportioned to the wants and powers of the society as to give them their proper value. The most useful commodity, in respect of its qualities, if it be absolutely in excess, not only loses its exchangeable value, but its power of supplying the wants of the society to the extent of its quantity, and part of it therefore loses its quality of wealth. If the roads and canals of England were suddenly broken up and destroyed, so as to prevent all passage and interchange of goods, there would at first be no diminution of commodities, but there would be immediately a most alarming diminution both of value and wealth. A great quantity of goods would at once lose their value by becoming utterly useless; and though others would rise in particular places, yet from the general want of power to purchase, the rise would by no means compensate for the fall. The whole exchangeable value of the produce estimated in labour, corn, or money, would be greatly diminished; and it is quite obvious that the wealth of the society would be most essentially impaired; that is, its wants would not be in any degree so well supplied as before.

‘It appears, then, that the wealth of a country depends partly upon the quantity of produce obtained by its labour, and partly upon such an adaptation of it to the wants and powers of the existing population as is calculated to give it value.’

From the above passages, it appears that Mr. Malthus, though he will not admit wealth and exchangeable value to
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be one and the same thing, considers them as much more nearly connected than they have sometimes been supposed to be. M. Say identifies them *; insisting that commodities can have no other value than that which they derive from the power of procuring other commodities in exchange. The question is very ingeniously argued, but we feel the *reality* of Mr. Malthus's distinction, and are not convinced by the subtle discriminations of his opponent.

Mr. M. says that, if we do not confine wealth to tangible and material objects, we might call all labour productive, but productive in different degrees; and that the great objection to this scale is that it makes the circumstance of payment for any particular exertion, instead of the quality of the produce, the criterion of productiveness. According to Adam Smith, if a lady knits a pair of stockings for her amusement, she is as much a productive labourer as the regular stocking-weaver: but, according to this theory, no payment having been made for the lady's stockings, they are not to be considered as wealth. If we desert tangible and material objects, the song of a strolling actress, and the declamation of a speaker at the Westminster forum, would be the result of productive labour, because money is paid for it; while a superior song by a private lady, or the most splendid specimen of eloquence from the first orator in the House of Commons, would be unproductive because money is not paid for it. Acting, dancing, singing, and oratory, would be sometimes wealth and sometimes not, says Mr. Malthus, if wealth and exchangeable value are identified. If we desert matter, we must make payment the criterion of productiveness; and if we adopt that criterion, the same labour will be productive, or not, according as money is or is not paid for it. Here Mr. Malthus's conclusion does not seem to be correctly drawn: for it does not follow that payment must become the criterion of productiveness by deserting matter, and by identifying wealth with exchangeable value. Productiveness is only the *power* of producing, — it is not production itself; and exchangeable value is only the *power* of obtaining an equivalent, — it is not exchange itself. A lady may choose to give away her song and an orator his

* That is to say, as far as wealth or riches may be the subject of political economy. Air, water, and the light of the sun, are gifts gratuitously conferred on us by the bounty of Heaven; and, as they are given to all, no person is obliged to acquire them at the expence of personal labour: consequently, they have no exchangeable value, and are distinguished from *social* riches by M. Say, in his *Traité d'Economie Politique*, by the term *Natural Riches*.

speech, but these gratuitous exertions do not destroy the *exchangeable* value; that is, the *power* of obtaining an equivalent for either. The power is suspended on the occasion, but not abolished; and the melodious Syren, and "the honourable gentleman," if unfortunate circumstances should require it, may prove its productiveness by obtaining the product, — its *exchangeable* value by effecting an equivalent exchange.

'What,' says M. Say, 'do you confine wealth to material objects? Do you exclude from your definition our intellectual talents? Are they not productive funds? Do we not derive a revenue from them, greater or less, as we obtain a greater rent from an acre of good land than from an acre of brambles? — Whatever has an exchangeable value is a part of our wealth, which is essentially composed of the productive funds that we possess. Those funds are in land, capital, or personal faculties. Of these funds, some are alienable and not consumable, as land; others are alienable and consumable, as capital; others are inalienable and yet consumable, as those personal faculties, those talents, which perish with their possessor. From these funds issue every species of revenue on which society exists; and it may appear paradoxical, but is perfectly true, that all these species of revenue are immaterial, since they emanate from an immaterial quality, which is *utility*. The different utilities emanating from our productive funds are compared with each other by their value, which I have no occasion to denominate *exchangeable*, because in political economy I can recognize no other value than that which is *exchangeable*.' (P. 166—168.) — 'It is beyond the power of man to add a single atom to the mass of materials which compose the world: therefore, if he can create wealth, wealth is not matter.' (P. 155.)

In Mr. Malthus's chapter on the 'Nature and Measures of Value,' we find much ingenious reasoning, bearing principally on Adam Smith's doctrine; or rather on Mr. Ricardo's extension to every state of society of that principle which Dr. Smith had confined to its early periods, preceding the accumulation of capital; namely, that the exchangeable value of commodities depends on the quantity of labour required to produce and to bring them to market. In estimating the exchangeable value of stockings, for instance, the aggregate sum of all the various labours employed in their production; that of growing the raw material; that of conveying it to the country where it is to be manufactured, including a portion of that which is bestowed in building the ship, &c.; the labour of the spinner and weaver; a portion of the labour of the engineer, smith, and carpenter, who erected the building and machinery, &c. &c.; the aggregate sum of these various labours determines the quantity of other things for which these

stockings will exchange; while the same consideration of the various quantities of labour, that have been bestowed on those things, will equally govern the portion of them which will be given for the other. To illustrate his position, let us suppose, says Mr. Ricardo, an abridgment in the labour of any one of the processes, through which the raw material must pass before the manufactured stockings come to market. If fewer men are required to cultivate the cotton, if fewer sailors are employed in navigating or ship-wrights in building the ships, if fewer are employed in raising the building or machinery &c., the stockings would inevitably fall in value, and consequently command less of other things. They would fall, because a less quantity of labour was necessary to their production, and would therefore exchange for a smaller quantity of those things in which no such abridgment of labour had been made.

On the contrary, Mr. M. contends that the quantity of labour which a production has cost, and the quantity of labour which it will command in exchange, are essentially different, and that neither of them can come under the description of a standard-measure:

‘ It is indeed almost a contradiction in terms to say that the exchangeable value of a commodity is proportioned to the quantity of labour employed upon it. Exchangeable value, as the term implies, evidently means value in exchange for some other commodities; but if, when more labour is employed upon one commodity, more labour is also employed on the others for which it is exchanged, it is quite obvious that the exchangeable value of the first commodity cannot be proportioned to the labour employed upon it. If, for instance, at the same time that the labour of producing corn increases, the labour of producing money and many other commodities increases, there is at once an end of our being able to say with truth that all things become more or less valuable in proportion as more or less labour is employed in their production. In this case it is obvious that more labour has been employed upon corn, although a bushel of corn may still exchange for no more money nor labour than before. The exchangeable value of corn, therefore, has certainly not altered in proportion to the additional quantity of labour which it has cost in its production.’

Surely this is hypercritical. If ten pairs of stockings can be made in two days, and twenty pairs of gloves require the same time, the exchangeable value of one pair of stockings is equal to that of two pairs of gloves. If through some defect in the machinery, or increased difficulty in preparing the leather or growing the cotton, an additional day is required to manufacture the same number both of gloves and stockings;

ings ; though the exchangeable value of each, *with reference to the other*, remains the same, because both have been *equally raised* by additional labour, yet the exchangeable value of *both* is increased, with reference to all other things which have not been raised in exactly the same proportion : — but *their positive* exchangeable value has likewise altered : ten pairs of stockings, in the first instance, could be exchanged *only* for *two* days' labour employed in the manufacture of gloves ; while, in the second instance, ten pairs of stockings *can* be exchanged for *three* days' labour employed in the manufacture of them. When Mr. Malthus says, therefore, 'the exchangeable value of corn,' in the case supposed, 'has certainly not altered in proportion to the additional quantity of labour which it has cost in its production,' we think that he is wrong ; because in being exchanged for the same quantity of a given commodity, it is exchanged, by the terms of his own supposition, for the increased quantity of labour bestowed on the production of that commodity. Profiting by the caution, however, which Mr. M. has so judiciously enforced against a spirit of too precipitate generalization, we are far from being insensible to the exceptions which may oppose Mr. Ricardo's rule ; and no person is more ready to admit them than himself. He might not, indeed, allow that the relation of supply to demand 'is the dominant principle in the determination of prices, and that the cost of production can do nothing but in subordination to it : ' (Malthus, p. 76.) but he would admit that the exchangeable value of a commodity, under accidental circumstances and for short periods of time, increases directly as the demand and inversely as the supply. It costs the farmer no more labour to grow ten quarters of corn in a productive season than to grow only eight in an unfavourable year : the labour being the same, variations in the market-price, though not in the real price of the commodity, are constantly taking place from excess or deficiency of supply in proportion to effective demand. Mr. Ricardo does not deny this : he only contends that, notwithstanding these variations, there is a constant tendency in the exchangeable value of all commodities to be regulated by the quantity of labour employed in their production. Mr. M.'s objections to this doctrine are certainly very ingenious, and forcible ; particularly that which is grounded on the effect of different proportions of fixed capital, and the varying quickness of the returns of circulating capital in regulating the exchangeable value of commodities.

The matter, which seems principally to have called forth M. Say's animadversion, is an attack on one of his own doctrines,

doctrines, to be found in the third section of Mr. Malthus's chapter 'On the immediate Causes of the Progress of Wealth.' The doctrine, supported as it has been by Mr. Mill and Mr. Ricardo, has very much the semblance of a paradox. It is attacked by Mr. Malthus with great force of argument, and defended by M. Say with more ingenuity than success. — This is the subject of controversy:

'It has been thought by some very able writers, that although there may easily be a glut of particular commodities, there cannot possibly be a glut of commodities in general; because, according to their view of the subject, commodities being always exchanged for commodities, one half will furnish a market for the other half, and production being thus the sole source of demand, an excess in the supply of one article merely proves a deficiency in the supply of some other, and a general excess is impossible. M. Say, in his distinguished work on political economy, has indeed gone so far as to state that the consumption of a commodity, by taking it out of the market, diminishes demand, and the production of a commodity proportionably increases it.

'This doctrine, however, to the extent in which it has been applied, appears to me to be utterly unfounded, and completely to contradict the great principles which regulate supply and demand.

'It is by no means true, as a matter of fact, that commodities are always exchanged for commodities. The great mass of commodities is exchanged directly for labour, either productive or unproductive; and it is quite obvious that this mass of commodities, compared with the labour with which it is to be exchanged, may fall in value from a glut, just as any one commodity falls in value from an excess of supply, compared either with labour or money.

'In the case supposed there would evidently be an unusual quantity of commodities of all kinds in the market, owing to the unproductive labourers of the country having been converted, by the accumulation of capital, into productive labourers; while the number of labourers altogether being the same, and the power and will to purchase for consumption among landlords and capitalists being by supposition diminished, commodities would necessarily fall in value, compared with labour, so as to lower profits almost to nothing, and to check for a time further production. But this is precisely what is meant by the term glut, which, in this case, is evidently general, not partial.' —

'It is asserted that effectual demand is nothing more than the offering of one commodity in exchange for another. But is this all that is necessary to effectual demand? Though each commodity may have cost the same quantity of labour and capital in its production, and they may be exactly equivalent to each other in exchange, yet why may not both be so plentiful as not to command more labour, or but very little more than they have cost; and in this case would the demand for them be effectual? Would it

it be such as to encourage their continued production? Unquestionably not. Their relation to each other may not have changed; but their relation to the wants of the society, their relation to bullion, and their relation to domestic and foreign labour, may have experienced a most important change.'

It must here be observed that the word *labour* is used in a much more comprehensive sense by M. Say than by Mr. Malthus. The latter employs it in the usual and limited acceptance of the term: but, when the former contends, with Mr. Ricardo, that *labour* is the foundation or rather the measure of all exchangeable value, he does not confine his meaning to the labour or productive service of man, but extends it also to the usufruct of capital, and of the earth itself. (See p. 31. of M. Say's *Lettres*.)

Surely nothing can be more clear than that supply is encouraged by demand, and production by consumption; and that, if every man converted his revenue into capital, (that is to say, practised parsimony,) the immediate effect would be a glut of commodities in the market, whatever might be its ultimate operation in reducing future supplies. M. Say, and Mr. Ricardo likewise, though with an important concession, which is noticed by Mr. Malthus, contend that production ensures demand, and of course that there can be no such thing as an universal glut of commodities.

'Experience, as well as reasoning,' says M. Say, 'demonstrates that a production, which is either useful or agreeable, is neglected or despised only when we have not the means of purchasing it. Those means of purchasing are precisely that which establishes the demand for the production, and which gives to it its price; not to have a want *for any thing useful* is not to have the means of paying for it; and how is it that we have not the means of paying for it? Because we are destitute of that which constitutes wealth, of industry, of land, of capital. Once provided with the means of producing, men adapt their productions to *their necessities*; for production itself is an exchange where we offer the means of production, and in return demand that of which we most feel the want.' (P. 61.)

In the latter part of this paragraph, we find the same metaphysical obscurity of which we complained before; and it must not pass unobserved that *here* M. Say does not limit his remark to that which is *useful and necessary*, but extends it to what is agreeable. Admitting it to be true as far as the necessities of life are concerned, how does the question stand with reference to the incomparably more various and fanciful productions which are designated luxuries? We have some amusing banter in M. de Sismondi's "*Nouveaux Principes*

d'Economie," on the absurdity of imagining a journeyman weaver riding down to his master's manufactory every day, and stepping out of his own carriage, bedizened in ribbon, lace, velvet, and brocade, *to go to work*. A man will perhaps work himself to the bone for the necessities and even for the decencies of life, on account of himself or his family, but not for mere luxuries. He would not wear fine cloth instead of coarse, or velvet instead of fine cloth, at the expence of two hours' daily extra labour : for he would find more enjoyment in the indulgence of his ease than of his vanity.

Well and truly does Mr. Malthus observe, concerning those writers who contend that there can be no excess of production in any one article unless there be a corresponding deficiency of production in some others to exchange for it; that they have considered commodities as if they were so many mathematical figures or arithmetical characters, the relations of which were to be compared ; instead of articles of consumption, which must of course be referred to the numbers and wants of the consumers. Population remaining stationary, suppose that by some instantaneous increase in the powers of machinery, or by the help of Aladdin's lamp, which may justify the extravagance of the supposition, every consumable production is at once doubled. Is it not plain that, although these articles of consumption might bear the same exchangeable value with reference to each other which they bore previously, they would bear a very different relation to the consumers ; who are, by the terms of the supposition, reduced, with respect to them, in the proportion of one half? Whence is the consumption to come? If we say from foreign countries, we must wave the magician's wand over those countries, and double their productions likewise. If we say that such abundance will produce a corresponding increase of population to consume it, we may grant the fact, and Mr. Malthus certainly could not refuse to admit it : but we are constrained to add that fifteen or twenty years must elapse first ; and long before that time our manufacturers and farmers will have relinquished the ruinous labour of increasing productions to glut markets already overstocked, or to rot while they remain in granaries and warehouses, waiting for consumers of the next generation. — M. Say states his proposition in the form of a syllogism : money being only a medium of exchange, objects of consumption are not in fact purchased by money, but by those products the sale of which has already enabled us to procure money. In other words, production alone purchases production, through the medium of a common measure, called money.

' From

'From these premises,' says he, (p. 5.) 'I have drawn a conclusion, which to me is evident, but the consequences of which startle you. I have said, since no one can purchase the products of others but by his own products, and since the value which we can purchase is equal to the value which we can produce, *men will purchase more in proportion as they produce more.*' Thence, likewise, this other conclusion which you refuse to admit, that, if certain articles of merchandise do not sell, it is because other articles are not presented in exchange; and that it is production alone which opens the market for productions.'

The disposition and the ability are here used as convertible terms, which we conceive they are not. Consumption must undoubtedly be limited by the means, but it is also subject to limitation by the number of consumers; and productions may be much more rapidly increased than population. M. de Sismondi, in the first volume of his excellent work, (p. 336, &c.) had expatiated on the universal glut of English commodities in every market, not only on the continent of Europe but likewise in Asia and America.

"The supply of all sorts of merchandise," says he, "particularly English, in the Italian markets, so greatly exceeds the demand, that merchants, in order to get back a part of their investments, have been obliged to submit to the loss of a third or a fourth of their value. The torrent of commerce, driven back from Italy, has flowed on Germany, Russia, and Brazil, where it soon had to encounter the same obstacles. The warehouses at the Cape of Good Hope have groaned under the weight of European wares, which were offered at a depreciated price. Complaints of the same nature have been made at Calcutta; and the singular spectacle has been exhibited of England sending cotton goods to India, and forcing a market by working cheaper than the half-naked inhabitants of Hindostan. New Holland, Buenos Ayres, Chili, &c. have re-gorged the manufactures with which they were glutted." (*Nouveaux Principes*, &c. tom. i. p. 339.)

M. Say denies no part of this statement, but says that it is conclusive — in his own favor.

'There is an excess of English merchandise in the Italian markets,' he says, 'only because there is a deficiency of Italian merchandise to pay for it. A country buys only that for which it can pay, because, if it did not pay, other countries would soon cease to sell to it. With what can the Italians pay the English? Oils, silks, and dried fruits. Beyond these and a few other articles, if they want English products, how are they to pay for them? With money! But they must first obtain the money itself. You see, therefore, that, in order to obtain products, a nation as well as an individual must have recourse to its own productions.' (P. 16.)

This reply, applicable as well to Mr. Malthus as to M. de Sismondi, does not convince us of the impossibility of an uni-
versal

versal glut of commodities. If there be a glut of one commodity, there may of another and another, indefinitely. The actual redundancy of European commodities is admitted. M. Say endeavours to account for it, but he suggests no practicable remedy in alleging that the people of Italy and Brazil are so poor that they cannot pay for them. The Italians do not grow olives and grapes enough, they do not keep silk-worms in sufficient abundance, and they have no money : but why should they grow more olives and grapes, or keep more silk-worms, even if they had, what the supposition assumes they have not, the requisite capital to extend their plantations and multiply their cocoons? Not, surely, for the sake of purchasing English merchandise ; since it is allowed that they can already buy it at two-thirds or three-fourths of its prime cost ; and that it is driven about not by wholesome and exhilarating *trade winds*, but by parching and destructive *siroccos*, from port to port, from market to market, from Europe to Asia, Africa, and America. Production, then, may be carried to excess, and is so carried whenever it exceeds the *effective* demand of consumers : the evil is palpable and practical. Not so, as it appears to us, is the remedy suggested, of increasing the production of other commodities. The Italians, for instance, have no inducement as long as the glut lasts ; and when that is withdrawn they have not the means, '*parce qu'il faudrait acquérir l'argent lui-même.*' Where, then, we ask, is the *practical* remedy ? If political economy is to be considered merely as a speculative science, let speculative men indulge their reveries *ad libitum* : but, if its principles are to have any practical application, the severest restraint should be placed on an excursive imagination, and the greatest care taken that no principles are promulgated (or, at least, enforced,) which are unsound. — All the markets of Europe, Asia, and America, are glutted with goods : the remedy is — to manufacture more ! Those countries and those individuals, who have means, purchase all that they want, and all that they wish to have : the remedy for the evil of those countries and individuals who have not means is — to acquire them ! Make the poor rich and they will become consumers. Be it so : — but how to make the poor rich is the question. Yet this appears to be the sum and substance of M. Say's doctrine. At all events, *until* they are grown rich, production may be carried to a ruinous excess beyond the demand for consumption.*

* In our notice of M. de Sismondi's *Nouveaux Principes d'Economie*, we stated his opinion, in which we are disposed to coincide, as to the *balance* of production and consumption. (See M. R. vol. xci. p. 465, &c.)

‘ It has been said,’ observes Mr. Malthus, ‘ that, when there is an income ready for the demand, it is impossible that there should be any difficulty in the employment of labour and capital to supply it, as the owner of such an income, rather than not spend it, would purchase a table or chair that had cost the labour of a hundred men for a year. This may be true, in cases of fixed monied revenues, obtained by inheritance, or with little or no trouble. We well know that some of the Roman nobles, who obtained their immense wealth chiefly by the easy mode of plunder, sometimes gave the most enormous prices for fancied luxuries. A feather will weigh down a scale when there is nothing in the opposite one. But where the amount of the incomes of a country depend, in a considerable degree, upon the exertion of labour, activity, and attention, there must be something in the commodities to be obtained sufficiently desirable to balance this exertion, or the exertion will cease. And experience amply shows, by the number of persons who daily leave off business, when they might certainly have continued to improve their fortunes, that most men place some limits, however variable, to the quantity of conveniences and luxuries which they will labour for; and that very few indeed would attend a counting-house six or eight hours a day, in order to purchase commodities which have no other merit than the quantity of labour which has been employed upon them.’

The employment of machinery has been the subject of such frequent discussion, that it would be tedious to enter on it here, farther than to explain the difference of opinion concerning its value entertained by Mr. Malthus and by M. Say, who has devoted one of his Letters to this question. The former considers the most usual effect of machinery to be such an extension of the demand for a commodity, by its reduction in price, that the value of the whole mass of goods, made by its assistance, greatly exceeds their former value; and, notwithstanding the saving of labour, that more hands instead of fewer are required in the manufacture. This has been strikingly exemplified by the prodigious extension of the sale of cotton-goods, both at home and abroad, occasioned by the use of machinery in their fabrication; and to this M. Say has very happily added, the *printing-press*: which employs an immensely greater number of hands, in its direct and collateral operation, than were employed when books were copied by hand and sold at a higher price. Although, however, Mr. Malthus feels no apprehension of permanent evil from the use of machinery, he considers, in perfect consistency with his views of production and consumption, that its pre-eminent advantages depend on the *extension of the market* for the commodity produced, and the increased stimulus given to consumption. Like the fertility of land, it confers a vast power of production: but neither of these

these powers can be called fully into action, if the situation and circumstances or the habits and tastes of society prevent the opening of a sufficient market, and an adequate increase of consumption. (P. 412.) M. Say contends that machinery has advantages common to every expeditious and economical process, 'which would be experienced although the consumption of the product received not the slightest extension.' (P. 130.) Every change, says he, in passing from one order of things to another, although a better, is effected with some inconvenience; and the substitution of machinery is sometimes, not always, attended with a displacement of the revenue of that class in society whose funds consist in their bodily faculties, in order to augment the revenue of that class whose funds consist in their intellectual faculties and in their capitals. This is conceding more, we imagine, than Mr. Malthus would ask:—but the most important effect resulting from machinery is the augmentation of revenue to the consumers of all those productions furnished by it at a cheaper rate: an augmentation which costs nothing to any person. This fact is illustrated at length by the diminished expence of converting wheat into flour by the machinery of a mill. It is only telling us, however, that, when an article is reduced in price, a given quantity may be consumed with a less portion of the consumer's revenue than when it was dearer; and, consequently, that the consumer has a greater portion of revenue at liberty to be employed in other directions. If a single product be reduced by machinery to one-half of its price, for instance, the purchase of a given quantity displaces only half of the revenue which it displaced before:—if *every* product were so reduced, the enjoyments of life would be doubly accessible to all the consumers:—but this is only ringing new changes on the same bells.

A great variety of subjects solicit attention in the examination of the works before us: but, as it was impossible to notice them all, we have selected those which called forth the critical animadversion of M. Say, in order that we might put our readers in possession of the points of controversy, and of some of the arguments adduced on both sides by these distinguished writers. We must refer also to an article in our *Appendix*, printed with this Number, on M. Ganilh's publication respecting Systems of Political Economy.

ART. X. *Narrative of the Operations and Recent Discoveries within the Pyramids, Temples, Tombs, and Excavations, in Egypt and Nubia; and of a Journey to the Coast of the Red Sea, in search of the Ancient Berenice, and another to the Oasis of Jupiter Ammon.* By G. Belzoni. 4to. pp. 483. 2l. 2s. Boards. Murray. 1820.

Plates illustrative of the Researches and Operations of G. Belzoni in Egypt and Nubia. Atlas folio. 7l. 7s. Murray.

WE have here a proof that much may be effected, in a difficult pursuit, without the aid of recondite information or peculiar preparation, by the means of activity, labour, and enterprize. The author of this work has no pretensions to deep science, yet, by unwearied perseverance, he has brought to light many of the most curious treasures of Egyptian antiquity: nor does his book exhibit traces of profound learning on the subject of his investigations; yet the love of antiquity seems to have been cherished by this extraordinary and intrepid foreigner to a degree of ardour, which we should expect only from those who have been trained to the study by early discipline and systematic application. In the accomplishment of his objects, no dangers or difficulties abated the steadiness of his resolution or the warmth of his zeal; yet the dangers and difficulties which he encountered, and subdued, were neither few nor inconsiderable.

For these reasons, it would be unjustifiable to expect, from such a work as that which he has now presented to the public, any thing beyond a simple record of his own researches. It aspires to no higher praise. Written in phraseology which can scarcely be called English, and evidently the product of a mind accustomed to think in a different language, it is still clear and perspicuous; — and, above all, it is a narrative which bears on its face the character of ingenuousness and truth. How much superior is it, then, to those relations which, tricked out in all the drapery of style and of rhetoric, furnish either truth embellished into falsehood, or falsehood coloured into an awkward imitation of truth!

We learn from the unvarnished memoir of himself which precedes his narrative, that Mr. Belzoni is a native of Padua; and that the troubles which broke out in Italy compelled him in 1800 to quit his native city, and to study at Rome for the ecclesiastical profession: but that, when the French army entered the papal territories, the course of his education was interrupted, and from that time he has been a wanderer. Having resided in England during nine years, he proceeded to the south; and having from his early youth been addicted to mechanical pursuits, and understanding that the Pasha of
Egypt

Egypt was likely to patronize an easier and more economical process for irrigation than that which is now in use in that country, he embarked for Alexandria, where he arrived with Mrs. Belzoni (an English lady) in June, 1815. After some delay occasioned by the plague, he was there introduced to Mahommed Ali Pasha, and courteously received. The result of his interview with that personage was an undertaking, for a stipulated sum, to erect a machine which should raise as much water with one ox as the machines of the country obtain with four. Mr. B. carried on his hydraulic operations in the Pasha's garden at Soubra, on the Nile, three miles from Cairo; and, the machine being at length completed, it was set to work. Its failure must be related in his own words:

' Although constructed with bad wood and bad iron, and erected by Arabian carpenters and bricklayers, it was a question whether it did not draw six or seven times as much water as the common machines. — It is to be observed, that the water produced by this machine was measured by comparison with the water procured by six of their own; and that, at the time of measuring, the Arabs urged their animals at such a rate, that they could not have continued their exertion above an hour; and for the moment they produced nearly double the quantity of water that was usually obtained. — Still Mahommed Ali perceived plainly the prejudice among the Arabs, and some of the Turks, who were concerned in the cultivation of the land; for instead of four hundred people, and four hundred oxen, they would have only to command one hundred of each, which would make a considerable difference in their profits: but, as it happened, an accident occurred, that put an end to all their fears.

' The Bashaw took it into his head to have the oxen taken out of the wheel, in order to see, by way of frolic, what effect the machine would have by putting fifteen men into it. James, the Irish lad in my service, entered along with them; but no sooner had the wheel turned once round, than they all jumped out, leaving the lad alone in it. The wheel, of course, overbalanced by the weight of the water, turned back with such velocity, that the catch was unable to stop it. The lad was thrown out, and in the fall broke one of his thighs. I contrived to stop the wheel before it did farther injury, which might have been done to him. The Turks have a belief, that, when such accidents happen in the commencement of any new invention, it is a bad omen. In consequence of this, exclusive of the prejudice against the machine itself, the Bashaw was persuaded to abandon the affair. — The business ended in this manner; and all that was due to me from the Bashaw was consigned to oblivion, as well as the stipulation I had made with him.

It was the abandonment of this speculation which suggested
Mr. Belzoni the enterprize of transporting the colossal head,
 which

which is called the "young Memnon," to Alexandria. That immense fragment, now safely deposited in the British Museum, had hitherto baffled the repeated attempts of French engineers and *scavans*, and was considered as irremoveable: but to this project he was encouraged by Mr. Salt, our consul at Cairo, and the late Mr. Burckhardt; both of which gentlemen have been amply and advantageously introduced to our readers. Having received his instructions and letters to the Pasha (or, as Mr. Belzoni calls him throughout the volume, the Bashaw) of Upper Egypt, on the 30th of June Mr. B. proceeded to Thebes, in the immediate vicinity of which the young Memnon was lying. On his voyage up the Nile he visited the ruins of Hermopolis, which consist only of a portico supported by two rows of columns. Their appearance is majestic; and he concludes, though on what ground is not apparent, that they are of a date anterior to Thebes: — but the celebrated temple of Tentyra (now Dendera) absorbed all his thoughts. 'On our arriving before it,' he says, 'I was for some time at a loss to know where I should begin my examination. The numerous objects before me left me for awhile in a state of suspense and astonishment.' This temple is the first that is seen by travellers, as they ascend the Nile; and from the superiority of its workmanship, Mr. B. infers that it was of the time of the first Ptolemy. Our readers will probably remember the description given of this beautiful relique by Denon, and that it is extolled by that writer as a specimen of the purest style of Egyptian architecture. We cannot, however, withhold from them Mr. Belzoni's account of it:

'This is the cabinet of the Egyptian arts, the product of study for many centuries, and it was here that Denon thought himself in the sanctuary of the arts and sciences. The front is adorned with a beautiful cornice, and a frieze covered with figures and hieroglyphics, over the centre of which the winged globe is predominant, and the two sides are embellished with compartments of sacrifices and offerings. The columns that form the portico are twenty-four in number, divided into four rows, including those in the front. On entering the gate the scene changes, and requires more minute observation. The quadrangular form of the capitals first strikes the eye. At each side of the square there is a colossal head of the goddess Isis with cows' ears. There is not one of these heads but is much mutilated, particularly those on the columns in the front of the temple facing the outside; but notwithstanding this disadvantage, and the flatness of their form, there is a simplicity in their countenance that approaches to a smile. The shafts of the columns are covered with hieroglyphics and figures, which are in basso relievo, as are all the figures in the front and lateral walls. The front of the door-way, which is in a
straight

straight line with the entrance and the sanctuary, is richly adorned with figures of smaller size than the rest of the portico. The ceiling contains the zodiac, inclosed by two long female figures, which extend from one side to the other of it. The walls are divided into several square compartments, each containing figures representing deities, and priests in the act of offering or immolating victims. On all the walls, columns, ceiling, or architraves, there is nowhere a space of two feet, that is not covered with some figures of human beings, animals, plants, emblems of agriculture, or of religious ceremony. — The inner apartments are much the same as the portico, all covered with figures in basso relievo, to which the light enters through small holes in the walls: the sanctuary itself is quite dark. In the corner of it I found the door, which leads to the roof by a staircase, the walls of which are also covered with figures in basso relievo. — From the top I descended into some apartments on the east side of the temple. There I saw the famous zodiac on the ceiling. The circular form of this zodiac led me to suppose, in some measure, that this temple was built at a later period than the rest, as nothing like it is seen any where else. In the front of the edifice there is a propylæon, not inferior to the works in the temple; and, though partly fallen, it still shows its ancient grandeur. On the left, going from the portico, there is a small temple surrounded by columns. In the inside is a figure of Isis sitting with Orus in her lap, and other female figures, each with a child in her arms, are observable. The capitals of the columns are adorned with the figure of Typhon. The gallery or portico, that surrounds the temple, is filled up with rubbish to a great height, and walls of unburnt bricks have been raised from one column to another. Farther on, in a right line with the propylæon, are the remains of an hypæthral temple, which form a square of twelve columns, connected with each other by a wall, except at the door-way, which fronts the propylæon. The eastern wall of the great temple is richly adorned with figures in intaglio relevato: they are perfectly finished; the female figures are about four feet high, disposed in different compartments. — At some distance from the great temple are the foundations of another, not so large as the first. The propylæon is still standing in good preservation.'

Mr. Belzoni now approached the object of his laborious pilgrimage, for he arrived at Thebes on the 22d of July, landed at Luxor on the opposite bank, and fell in love with the far-famed bust at first sight. 'I found it,' he says, 'near the remains of its body and chair, with its face upwards, and apparently smiling upon me at the thoughts of being taken to England.' After various difficulties, chiefly interposed by the cunning and obstinacy of the Cacheef of Erments, the Governor of the Fellahs* in the province of

* Mr. Belzoni should have explained the meaning of this word. Fellahs are Arabs who cultivate the soil, and are distinct from the Bedoueen or wandering tribes.

Gournou, Mr. B.'s perseverance at length triumphed; and, for the trivial pay of thirty paras each (about four-pence English money), he succeeded in procuring Arabs to remove the bust. They began their labours on the 27th of June; and, by impelling the bust at the rate sometimes of fifty and at others of four hundred yards in a day, this immense piece of sculpture, weighing at least twelve tons, was by the 12th of August ready for embarkation.

In exploring a sepulchral cave on the next day, containing a sarcophagus, an incident happened which put Mr. B.'s firmness to the test; and, in fact, he narrowly escaped being entombed in one of those subterranean labyrinths which are so common in that country. It seems that, depending on the two Arabs with whom he had entered to conduct him out again, he had crawled to a considerable distance from the entrance; when having proceeded downwards a long way through a narrow cavity, they came to a place where two other cavities led horizontally towards the interior. One of the Arabs then pointed out this as the place of the sarcophagus: but our traveller could not conceive how it could possibly have entered so small an aperture; for, though he had no doubt, from the skulls and bones over which he had passed, that these dismal recesses were burial-places, the opening was so narrow that he could not penetrate it. One of the Arabs, however, accompanied by the interpreter, effected a passage, while Mr. B. and the other Arab waited for their return. They had evidently proceeded a considerable distance, when he heard the interpreter exclaiming, "Heavens! I am lost!" after which a dead silence ensued. 'I asked my Arab,' says he, 'whether he had ever been there before?' *Never*, was the reply; and, being required to shew the way out again, the man stared like an idiot, and said that he did not know the road. After some minutes of appalling suspense, and receiving no answer from the men who had left them, though he repeatedly called out to them, Mr. Belzoni attempted to return through the passages, and at last succeeded in reaching a place where he saw many other cavities, all bearing an exact resemblance to each other. In the mean while, as if to heighten the horrors of this fearful recess, their candles were rapidly consuming. Having, with incredible toil, advanced, as they thought, towards the outside, they found that the end of the avenue had no outlet. With feelings that may be imagined, they returned to the spot at which they had observed the various cavities: but, when they came there, they were as much perplexed as ever; and the only expedient was to put a mark at the place out of which they had

just returned, and to explore, exhausted as they were, each avenue in succession. It was on their second attempt that, passing before a small aperture, he thought that he heard the sound of something at a distance, like the roar of the sea. As they advanced, the noise increased, and at last they issued forth to day-light; when the first person whom Mr. Belzoni saw was the interpreter. From him he learned that, when proceeding with the other Arab, they had come to a pit, that the Arab fell into it, and that at the same instant their candles went out, when he had uttered the exclamation which had been heard by Mr. Belzoni. Luckily, they had observed a glimpse of light at a distance, and, by following it, at length arrived at a small opening. 'The place,' says the author, 'by which my interpreter got out was instantly widened, and in the confusion the Arabs suffered me to see that they were acquainted with that entrance, which had lately been shut up. I was not long in detecting their scheme. They had intended to shew me the sarcophagus, without letting me see the way by which it could be taken out, and then to stipulate a price for the secret.' (P. 54.) In fact, the sarcophagus was not a hundred yards from the large entrance. The man was soon taken from the pit, but so much hurt by his fall as to be lame ever afterward.

This incident is equalled in horror only by a similar adventure, which happened to Mr. Legh and Mr. Smelt in 1812, and told in a most interesting manner by the former of those gentlemen in his narrative of a journey in Egypt, published in 1816.* We confess that these experiments on Egyptian cemeteries are not much suited to our taste; and we remember that a former traveller into the same country, unarmed with the intrepidity which inspired Mr. Belzoni and Mr. Legh, desisted from his investigations of these dismal charnel-houses in affright and horror. "The suffocating smell," said he, "and the natural dread excited by being left alone unarmed with the wild villagers in this infernal mansion, made me quickly return to the open air."†

Although the colossal bust had now reached the banks of the Nile, no boat was yet ready for its reception, and Mr. B. therefore determined to proceed up the river, as far as the second cataract. On this voyage, he visited several places of which the ruins attested their antient grandeur; particularly Edfou, (*Apollinopolis parva*,) and Ombos. The temple at Edfou rivalled that of Tentyra in beauty of deco-

* See Rev. for December, 1817.

† *Light's Travels into Egypt, &c. in the year 1814.*

ration and simplicity of design. The remains of Ombos consist of several rich groupes of architecture. — He pursued the track of Mr. Legh and Mr. Smelt, who advanced no farther than Ibrim. At the distance of three days' journey were the celebrated temples of Ipsambul; and it was here that he conceived the idea of uncovering the great temple, which had been found by the lamented and amiable Burckhardt. Hence he continued his ascent of the Nile to the second cataract; and, having procured from the Cacheef as many labourers as he required, he returned to the task which he had so much at heart, viz. the clearing of the temple at Ipsambul. At the end of four or five days, however, his funds being quite exhausted, he was compelled to relinquish his undertaking for the present, and returned to Thebes; where, after a thousand impediments, which he successively removed, he at last embarked the young Memnon for Cairo, on the 17th of November.

This voyage was fruitful of several curious incidents, and afforded him an opportunity of inspecting the magnificent ruins with which that part of Egypt abounds. They have, however, been described and elucidated by antecedent travellers. In truth, the most detailed account of architectural ruins must convey to the mind an impression much less vivid and correct, than that which is imparted to the eye by graphical delineation; and the more elaborate is the attempt to communicate by words the arrangement, position, form, and relations of the several parts, the more confused and unintelligible is the picture. We refer our readers, therefore, to the splendid volume of plates published by Mr. Belzoni in illustration of his travels; which are executed with great precision, principally at the lithographic press, and do high honour to that school of engraving.

After five months and a half of unremitted exertion, Mr. B. arrived at Cairo with the young Memnon; and he had the satisfaction, early in January, 1817, of seeing this darling object of his enterprize safely deposited at Alexandria, whence in a short time it was shipped for England. Having concluded these operations, he embarked once more on the Nile, accompanied by Mr. Beechey, on a second excursion to Upper Egypt and Nubia, in order to achieve his project of opening the temple at Ipsambul. At Philæ, he was joined by Captain Irby of the navy. The avarice and cunning of the natives, whom he employed to aid him in this labour, threw perpetual difficulties in his way: but he was not discouraged. Having distributed three hundred piastres (ten pounds) to about eighty men, they grew tired at the end of

the third day, and, contenting themselves with the piastres, left him to prosecute his excavations as well as he could. Accordingly, the travellers determined to try the result of their own exertions; and, assisted by the crew of the boat, in eighteen days they arrived at the door-way of the temple, which now emerged to the light, after having been covered with sand for two thousand years. Mr. Belzoni triumphantly considers this 'as the finest and most extensive excavation in Nubia.' Of the interior of the temple, we extract the following description; observing that the exterior, for which we refer our readers to the book of plates, corresponds with it in simplicity and grandeur:

'We entered at first into a large pronaos, fifty-seven feet long and fifty-two wide, supported by two rows of square pillars, in a line from the front door to the door of the sekos. The tops of the figures on the pillars reach the ceiling, which is about thirty feet high: the pillars are five feet and a half square. Both these and the walls are covered with beautiful hieroglyphics, the style of which is somewhat superior, or at least bolder, than that of any others in Egypt, not only in the workmanship, but also in the subjects. They exhibit battles, storming of castles, triumphs over the Ethiopians, sacrifices, &c. In some places is to be seen the same hero as at Medinet Aboo, but in a different posture. Some of the columns are much injured by the close and heated atmosphere, the temperature of which was so hot, that the thermometer must have risen to above a hundred and thirty degrees. The second hall is about twenty-two feet high, thirty-seven wide, and twenty-five and a half long. It contains four pillars about four feet square; and the walls of this also covered with fine hieroglyphics in pretty good preservation. Beyond this is a shorter chamber, thirty-seven feet wide, in which is the entrance into the sanctuary. At each end of this chamber is a door leading into smaller chambers in the same direction with the sanctuary, each eight feet by seven. The sanctuary is twenty-three feet and a half long, and twelve feet wide. It contains a pedestal in the centre, and at the end four colossal sitting figures, the heads of which are in good preservation, not being injured by violence. On the right side of this great hall, entering into the temple, are two doors, at a short distance from each other, which lead into two long separate rooms, the first thirty-eight feet ten inches in length, and eleven feet five inches wide; the other forty-eight feet seven inches, by thirteen feet three. At the end of the first are several unfinished hieroglyphics, of which some, though merely sketched, give fine ideas of their manner of drawing. At the lateral corners of the entrance into the second chamber from the great hall is a door, each of which leads into a small chamber twenty-two feet six inches long, and ten feet wide. Each of these rooms has two doors leading into two other chambers, forty-three feet in length, and eleven feet wide. There are two benches in them, apparently

parently to sit on. The most remarkable subjects in this temple, are, 1st, a group of captive Ethiopians, in the western corner of the great hall: 2dly, the hero killing a man with his spear, another lying slain under his feet, on the same western wall: 3dly, the storming of a castle, in the western corner from the front door.'

While they were employed in bringing to light this magnificent relic of antient art, they were undergoing all the privations and hardships which the cunning and malice of the natives could inflict; and their stock of provisions was gradually so reduced, that, for the last six days, they had no other food than dhourra, boiled in water without salt, of which they had none left: the Cacheefs having given orders to the people not to sell them any kind of food whatever, with the humane view of driving them away by hunger. Mr. B. quitted this interesting place on the 4th of August, when he returned down the Nile to Thebes; and, re-commencing his researches in the valley of Beban el Malook, he at length penetrated into the tomb of Psammuthis. Of this magnificent monument we shall not pretend to insert his long and minute description, which can be understood only by a reference to the plates: but it is our duty to observe that it conveys the most accurate account which has yet been given of the original process of Egyptian sculpture.

At Cairo, Mr. B. directed his thoughts to the Pyramids; those immense monuments of labour, in which man seems to have entered into a competition with nature, and to have destined them to a duration coëval with the mountains. They have long been the subject of learned speculation, and erudition and ingenuity have been idly expended on the origin and purpose of structures apparently so useless. A northern professor gravely set himself at work to prove that they were large basaltic productions, either cast up in some of the throes and agonies of nature, or the gratuitous playthings of her caprice. Others have elaborately demonstrated that they were gnomons, or sun-dials; as if, says M. de Pauw, the authors of them, determined to construct the worst kind of sun-dial possible, had adopted a form which in the latitude of Lower Egypt, must, for a great part of the day, devour its own shadow. The common opinion, that they were sepulchral monuments of the antient sovereigns of the country, is now, we think, completely corroborated, and the question put to rest, by the evidence of the mausoleums or burial-grounds, as well as the mummy-pits, that have been discovered in their vicinity. This is the tradition which prevailed in the time of Herodotus; it is the opinion of Strabo and Diodorus Siculus; and it is consistent with the tenet of the Egyptians, that the

soul never deserted the body, while it continued in a state of preservation. Yet they are, after all, but elaborate memorials of the folly of posthumous vanity: for, though Cheops is said by the father of civil history to have employed for twenty years three hundred and sixty thousand of his subjects, to raise the pyramid in which his relics were to be lodged, yet, when Shaw in 1765 entered that gloomy chamber of death, not a bone of the mighty monarch was to be found. * In derision of mortal pride, the

"Quantula sint hominum corpuscula!"

could not have been more strikingly recorded. It was this circumstance, however, which seems to have led Bryant into the notion that the Pyramids were not sepulchral structures; and, when the bones found by Mr. Belzoni in the sarcophagus of the second pyramid, (that of Cephrenes,) and which till lately had been deemed human, turned out on examination in London to be those of a bull, a learned archaeologist of our own day produced a new theory; viz. that the Pyramids were mystic tombs of the Osiris who was annually bewailed as dead, and worshipped under the form of a bull. †

Notwithstanding the successive failures of other travellers to open the second pyramid, Mr. Belzoni resolved on making the experiment. On his arrival at these monuments, while his companions entered the first pyramid, he was surveying that of Cephrenes; and in describing the impressions produced on his mind as he beheld it, he says, 'My eyes were fixed on that enormous mass which for so many ages had baffled the conjectures of ancient and modern writers. In an intelligent age like the present, one of the greatest wonders of the world stood before us, without our knowing whether it had any cavity, or whether it were a solid mass.' (P. 255.) At first he was unsuccessful: but, after a series of laborious efforts, detailed with much minuteness, and exhibiting the constancy of no ordinary man, he found himself in the centre of that pyramid which had perplexed the conjectures of the learned in all ages, and which Herodotus, relying on the testimonies of the priests, believed to be a solid mass.

'My torch, formed of a few wax candles, gave but a faint light; I could, however, clearly distinguish the principal objects.

* Remarks on the Pyramid of Cephrenes, lately opened by Mr. Belzoni. By G. S. Faber. (1819.)

† For the learning on the worship of Osiris, see Dr. Prichard's work on Egyptian Mythology, noticed in the Monthly Review for July, 1820.

I naturally

I naturally turned my eyes to the west end of the chamber, looking for the sarcophagus, which I strongly expected to see in the same situation as that in the first pyramid: but I was disappointed when I saw nothing there. The chamber has a painted ceiling; and many of the stones had been removed from their places, evidently by some one in search of treasure. On my advancing toward the west end, I was agreeably surprized to find, that there was a sarcophagus buried on a level with the floor.

' By this time the Chevalier Frediani had entered also; and we took a general survey of the chamber, which I found to be forty-six feet three inches long, sixteen feet three inches wide, and twenty-three feet six inches high. It is cut out of the solid rock from the floor to the roof, which is composed of large blocks of calcareous stone, meeting in the centre, and forming a roof of the same slope as the pyramid itself. The sarcophagus is eight feet long, three feet six inches wide, and two feet three inches deep in the inside. It is surrounded by large blocks of granite, apparently to prevent its removal, which could not be effected without great labour. The lid had been broken at the side, so that the sarcophagus was half open. It is of the finest granite; but, like the other in the first pyramid, there is not one hieroglyphic on it.

' Looking at the inside, I perceived a great quantity of earth and stones, but did not observe the bones among the rubbish till the next day, as my attention was principally bent in search of some inscription that would throw light on the subject of this pyramid. We examined every part of the walls, and observed many scrawls executed with charcoal, but in unknown characters, and nearly imperceptible. They rubbed off into dust at the slightest touch.'

Many of the stones of this chamber had been removed, probably in pursuit of treasure supposed to be deposited within it; and, in confirmation of this remark, the author discerned an Arabic inscription, purporting that the pyramid had been opened in presence of one of the early princes of the Moslem dynasty, and again closed up.

The next expedition of Mr. Belzoni was in search of the antient Berenice: but our space will not permit us to state more than the result of these researches. A Monsieur Calind had pretended to have discovered the site of that memorable city, the greatest emporium of the old world, where the trade with India and Egypt was carried on. Our traveller and his companions followed the route of the ingenious Frenchman, examined the spot where he had laid down the ruins of Berenice, and found that they existed only in the imagination of "that same learned Theban." — Proceeding to the southern coast of the Red Sea, they fell all at once on those *cumuli* which in that country are almost infallible indications of the former existence of considerable cities. The position did not indeed exactly correspond with that which has been laid

down by D'Anville, but they were not at any considerable distance from the place stated by that accurate geographer.

Mr. B.'s last excursion was to the Oasis el Cassar, which he conjectures to have been the celebrated Oasis of Jupiter Ammon. He places the temple of Jupiter Ammon, though on grounds of conjecture somewhat unsatisfactory, in the Elloah of Siwah, or the Elloah el Cassar, which are designated by the old authors as the residence of the Ammonii; and 'consequently,' says he, 'the seat of its temple can but be within them, or not far off.' The jealousy of the natives, however, prevented Mr. Belzoni from a close inspection of the ruins, which he supposed to have been those of the Ammonian temple: but his inference, respecting the situation of this edifice, was strengthened by his having discovered, in the midst of a beautiful grove of palm-trees, the source of the Fountain of the Sun; for Herodotus says that there is a fountain near the temple of Jupiter Ammon, of which the water changes its temperature, being cold at noon and midnight, and warm in the morning and evening. Yet Mr. B.'s observation of its temperature does not accord with that of the historian; for we are here told that the water was warm at midnight: but he attempts to explain this discrepancy by the suggestion that Herodotus, who did not penetrate into the Lybian desert so far as the Oasis, derived his information from mere rumour.

We have thus noticed the more important parts of Mr. Belzoni's publication, which we conceive to be his *discoveries*, in the proper acceptance of the phrase; forbearing to follow him into those details in which he has been anticipated by former travellers: though his adventures with the rude inhabitants, and semi-barbarous tribes, of Egypt and Nubia, unfold to us much interesting information concerning their character, manners, and condition. We cannot, however, withhold a remark, suggested to us not only by this memoir of Mr. Belzoni's researches, but by every successive account of these regions that has come within the compass of our reading, from Shaw and Norden to Legh and Hamilton, that the antient connection between India and Egypt is indubitably proved by the peculiar character of Egyptian architecture, and the still more striking affinity of their ornamental sculpture, in confirmation of the researches of Sir William Jones, and the unanswerable reasonings of Frederic Schlegel. Captain Light, who was with our army in Egypt, and ascended the Nile in 1814, tells us that the Sepoys, in their march to join Lord Hutchinson in 1801, imagined that they had found their own temples in the ruins of Dendyra; were highly incensed against the Egyptians for the neglect of their deities;

deities; and were so strongly impressed with the identity, that they performed their devotions at those temples with as much terror as if they had been near their own pagodas.

Some curious details also occur concerning a race of people whom Mr. Belzoni describes as being 'very happy in their way.' These are the Troglodytes, who literally dwell in sepulchral caverns, among 'the corpses and rags of an antient nation, of which they know nothing.' Custom reconciles us to every thing, and "makes us," as Trinculo says, "acquainted with strange bed-fellows;" for Mr. B. himself occasionally resided with this singular tribe in some of the tombs, where he was received with great hospitality, and was glad to partake of a repast of fowls baked in an oven heated with bones and rags of mummies, seated on fragments of hands, feet, and skulls.

Annexed to this volume is a 'Trifling Account,' by Mrs. Belzoni, 'of the women of Egypt, Nubia, and Syria.' She is herself, we learn, an amiable woman; and the most candid manner in which we can notice her labours is (*Hibernicè*) to say nothing about them. She journeyed to the Holy Land, and was much incommoded with fleas.

ART. XI. *Miscellanies*: by the Rev. Richard Warner, Rector of Great Chalfield, Wilts. 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. Boards. Longman and Co.

WITH the same disposition to be pleased that accompanied us in our late review of Dr. Drake's "Winter Nights," (Rev. for December last,) we take up another sensible and entertaining miscellany in prose. We are glad to see these works multiplying among us; for we had begun to fear that the old English taste for good sense and good humour, conveyed in a quiet, temperate style, was on the decay; so rare was the appearance of any composition in this favourite manner of our ancestors.

Mr. Warner is respectably known to our readers as the author of some useful religious publications, which display a spirit of manly piety, entirely free from the extravagance of enthusiasm. His writings, indeed, especially those which defend the genuine principles of the Church of England from unauthorized methodistical additions, must be highly valued by the members of that church; and we do not know where the young country-clergyman, desirous of being led into the right medium between fanaticism and lukewarmness, can obtain discourses more likely to be immediately useful to

his

his flock ; or to establish himself in sound ways of thinking, and give a most desirable, because a most rational, cast to his future religious character.

In the present Miscellanies, we have a very amusing medley of subjects, all treated in an agreeable manner. Most of the pieces, indeed, have appeared before in the shape of contributions to more general works, but had never yet been collected ; and the channels, through which they have been ushered into the world of literature, have been of a very confined description. The first volume contains the following papers :

‘ On the Decay and Loss of Intellect : a Letter to * * * * *, jun. Esq. — On the Admiration of Talent and Learning, unassociated with Piety and Virtue ; a Letter to the same. — The Sceptic reclaimed. — Reason and Insanity : a Letter from a Gentleman under Derangement. — An Account of Monsieur Hamard, a French Emigrant : in a Letter to the Editors of * * * * *. — The Compilation of the Book of Common Prayer : an Historical Sketch.’

Of these essays, the most curious is perhaps that which is intitled ‘ Reason and Insanity ;’ the most entertaining, ‘ An Account of Monsieur Hamard ;’ and the most useful, ‘ The Compilation of the Book of Common Prayer.’

The essay on the ‘ Admiration of Talent and Learning, unassociated with Piety and Virtue,’ contains some remarks which are very seasonable in the present æra of indiscriminate love for all that is distinguished in ability, whatever be the moral character of the possessor. To women, in particular, we think it may be serviceable to read and reflect on this essay.

In the observations ‘ On the Decay and Loss of Intellect,’ we fancy that we discover something of a paradoxical bias : — at least, the author, from an over-weening anxiety to make out a system which in this view of it would approach rather to *optimism* than *benevolence*, undertakes practically, though not professedly, to illustrate the doctrine, “ whatever is, is right,” by proving that madness is not that miserable state of existence which the universal voice of reflection has pronounced it to be. That voice, however, must still be ready to acknowledge the truth of the touching observation of our great moral philosopher ; and to exclaim with him that, “ of all the calamities of life, the most melancholy is the uncertainty of the continuance of human reason.”

Volume II. contains, 1. ‘ The Story-teller, with Anecdotes ;’ 2. ‘ The Jokes of Hierocles, translated from the Greek ;’ 3. ‘ A Biographical Sketch of the late Rev. W. Gilpin,’ &c. — Of these papers, the first is a very amusing collection

tion of anecdotes, several of them new to us, and all well told. We shall present our readers with an extract or two from this division of the 'Miscellanies.' The biography of Gilpin is particularly interesting; and does honour both to the understanding and the feelings of the writer. The 'Jokes of Hierocles,' however, might have been omitted, without materially injuring the attractions of the work; although they are not ill translated, and revive in some instances the laughter of our childhood: — but repeated examples of hyperbolical folly are sure to fatigue.

We must preface our selection from the anecdotes by the obvious remark that nothing is so unsafe as the undertaking to tell a *new* story. Perhaps those which we select may be known to our readers through other channels: but we can offer in apology the old assurance, that we have done our best for their entertainment.

Presence of Mind.

'A housemaid in Upper Grosvenor-street, who was inclined to take a draught of ale, after the family had retired to bed, glided silently into the cellar without a candle. As she was feeling about for the cask, the situation of which was not unknown to her, she put her hand upon something which she immediately perceived to be the head of a man. The girl, with an uncommon share of fortitude and good sense, forbore to cry out; but said in a tone of impatience, "Deuce take Betty, she is always putting the mops in the way." She then went on to the cask, quietly drew her beer; retired from the cellar, fastened the door, and alarmed the house. The man was taken, tried, and convicted; and declared, before he quitted the court, that the maid was entirely indebted to her presence of mind for her life, for had she cried out, he *must* instantly have murdered her: but as he firmly believed she mistook his head for a mop, particularly as she had drawn the beer after she had felt it, he let her go away without injury, not apprehending that she could have given information of any one being in the cellar.'

The Art of Cutting — not always successful.

'The Duke of Bridgewater was a very shy man, and much disliked general society; and was either denied to morning visitors, or contrived to slip out of the way when any one called on him. The clergyman of his parish, Mr. Kenyon, who had some particular business with him, respecting the tithe of the parish, had often tried to gain admittance to him, but in vain, being always told that his Grace was very busy, or was not at home. Determined, however, to have an interview with him, Mr. K. called at a very early hour in the morning, thinking he should be certain, by this plan, of finding the Duke at home. But still he was disappointed, the servant giving the customary answer, that his Grace was gone out. Mr. Kenyon, fully assured that this was not the case, and steady to his point, loitered about the house, that he might catch its noble owner

owner when he quitted it. In a short time he perceived his Grace slip out of a back door. Mr. K. did not shew himself, lest the Duke seeing him might slip in again, but kept his eye upon him, till he saw him cross a field, and take the way to his navigation. He then walked hastily after the object of his pursuit; but not being able to conceal himself, was soon discovered by the Duke. His Grace, perceiving that he must be overtaken, instantly took to his heels: Mr. Kenyon did the same. They both ran stoutly for some time, till the Duke seeing he had the worse of the course, turned aside, and jumped into a saw-pit. He was followed in a trice, into his place of refuge, by his pursuer, who immediately exclaimed, "Now, my Lord Duke, I have you." His Grace burst into a fit of laughter, and the business of the tithe was quickly and amicably settled.

Would-be Wit.

'Few persons are more remarkable for those sprightly conceits in conversation, which, by a strange misnomer, are called *good things*, than the reverend S—d—y Sm—th. An acquaintance of his some time since expressing his doubts, whether he would find a residence upon his country living altogether accordant to his taste, or rural pursuits suited to a man of London habits; the witty clerk replied, "You are entirely mistaken, Sir, the situation is precisely what I could wish. I have always had a little *green spot* in my heart, and ever looked forward with pleasure to the *future in Rus.*'

We are sorry to differ from Mr. Warner in his approbation of this reverend sally: but to our taste (*sed de gustibus, &c.*) it is a complete pedant's joke, and should have been appended to the scholastic humours of Hierocles.

We were better pleased with the following anecdote:

'When Fox was in the ministry during the American war, and a plenipotentiary had been appointed to the American States, Fox asked the K—g, if it would be *agreeable* to him to receive an American minister in return. His M——y made a just and proper answer, specifically adapted to the unfortunate situation of public affairs. "Mr. Fox, the *phrase* of your question rather surprises me. It cannot be *agreeable* to me; but I can, and I do, *agree* to it." Fox himself related this anecdote to the late David Hartley, acknowledging, that his own phrase *agreeable* was indeed unsuitable and inconsiderate; but that his M——y's answer was manly, frank, and noble.'

Several other anecdotes are given on the authority of David Hartley, and are well worth reading.

We come now to the 'Memoir of Gilpin,' from which we must present an extract; although it is only by a perusal of the whole that an adequate notion can be formed of its merits as a very able piece of biography.

After

After having related several instances of happy deaths in the family of Mr. Gilpin, the author thus writes: it is a common place, we are aware: but on these occasions good sense best displays itself:

‘ It is impossible to contemplate these remarkable instances of peaceful dissolution, without acknowledging the efficacy of religion, in divesting the last great trial to which man is subject of its gloom, and illuminating it with cheerful submission to the will of God. No other principle is equal to such effects. Vanity, or the love of glory; infidelity, or hardened profligacy, may feel or affect indifference at the final hour; but their triumph is at best a negative one; for apathy is not resignation; nor does the sullen relinquishment of a good which cannot longer be retained, bear any resemblance to the cheerful restitution of a blessing, enjoyed with thankfulness as long as it is bestowed, and returned with gratitude when it is recalled. It is to piety alone, exemplified in an innocent and benevolent life, that God has given the high privilege of a joyful death. Through her operation, the *euthanasia*, or happy dissolution, which the heathen emperor so earnestly desired for himself and his friends, is no longer a cold ethical speculation, but a warm religious reality. Piety embodies the dream of philosophy, and creates a cheerful as well as tranquil termination of life. She robs the last enemy of all his power to distress or alarm, by pointing to a future state of bliss and recognition, where the consciousness of the faithful will be revived, and their virtuous attachments renewed, refined, and perpetuated.’

With one other selection we must close our notice of these creditable volumes; where occasional profundity of thought, combined with much objectionable matter, is well exchanged for uniform propriety and moderation, never degenerating into dulness, although never rising into any effort of extraordinary genius and felicity. Good men, however, and men of talent, would equally wish for such a biographer as Gilpin has found in Mr. Warner; and every reasonable and sincere Christian must be pleased with the following observations, with which we conclude:

‘ In opposition to the gloomy views which it is now too common to exhibit, of the dreadful effects produced on *human nature* by the fall; that it was then converted into a mass of pure, defecated evil, and despoiled of every amiable feeling, and every good affection; it is refreshing and consolatory to the mind, to observe in society frequent instances of *prompt* benevolence and *innate* kindness, which evince the falsity and turpitude of such representations; and satisfactorily prove, that, though shorn of its glories by the primæval transgression, the “image of God,” in which man had been originally created, was not annihilated; but that, in some of his natural impulses and unsophisticated sentiments, he still manifests his descent from the Fountain of perfection, and the

Author

Author of good. A few anecdotes in support of this comfortable truth will not be unacceptable to the reader.'

For these anecdotes we must refer *our* readers to the work itself.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR MAY, 1821.

POETRY.

Art. 12. *Profluens on the present Greatness of Britain; on Modern Poetry; and on the present Aspect of the World.* By Sharon Turner, F.A.S. 12mo. pp. 200. Longman and Co.

When a highly respectable man writes poetry, the first impulse of the reader's mind is to forgive all the faults that he may betray, and to admire all the excellences which he may manifest. This is a tribute justly paid to moral worth and intellectual eminence: but the best feelings are liable to the decay of patience; and, when many respectable men go on for years, mistaking their real arithmetical talent, and launching into the forbidden regions of imagination, then the moral taste is exhausted, and, "worthy or not worthy," (the reader exclaims,) "This is a very dull poet."

We grieve to be forced to affix such a remark to any work of the historian of the Anglo-Saxons: but the truth is,

"*Non omnia possumus omnes;*"

and fleas are no more deserving of the name of lobsters, than poets are of the name of historians. Let Mr. Turner be contented with *being something better*, and not aim at *any thing worse*.

Is it credible that a man of learning, and of classical attainments, should *begin* a poem in such a manner as this?

' Altho', our egotism, — dear friend! forgive.

I glory in the country where I live.

This theme, congenial to your heart, my verse

Attempts, in varied sketches to rehearse.

Will you, whose searches with such zeal explore

The letter'd taste that sleeps, suspend its lore

To listen while I trifle? while the lay

The age we live in, labours to pourtray?

' "Born beyond Ganges, I had been a Pagan,

In France a Christian; I am here a Saracen.

Our minds, our morals, our most fixed belief,

Are consequences of our place of birth."

' If this be truth, and such it seems, altho'

The thought may fly from Voltaire's tartar bow;

If cultur'd mind be bliss or fame, how blest

We, who in British isles have found our nest!

It

It seems to be a very common idea among the poets of the day, that it is quite sufficient for them to give a *hint* to their readers of what they mean.

“ *Obliquum torqueat Enthymema* ”

is the motto of many distinguished scribblers in verse ; and these imperfect syllogisms form all the instruction which the reader of modern poetry is to derive from his studies ! Yet few are obscure who *can* be intelligible ; and all can be intelligible who *are* intelligent. We are far from applying the whole force of these remarks to Mr. Sharon Turner, who stands on a height inaccessible to such assaults : but we do mean that his book is very prosaic, while it professes to be poetical ; and that, in several works which we could mention, a much better *exposé* of modern men, manners, and literary taste, has been given, than that which is here offered to the indulgent reader.

How should we rejoice if the following picture of British India were as just as it is unpoetical !

‘ Th’ enlightening and the meliorating breath
Has quicken’d India from its moral death.
No more our nature, and our nation’s shame,
Our wiser children vindicate our fame.
No more the pilfer’d wreaths our brows adorn ;
Gold seiz’d by murder, or from famine torn.
No Clive half hero and half robber scowls,
No rulers plunder and no envy prowls.
No regal bramin hangs for doubtful deed ;
No begums wailing, and no sultans bleed —
Not rapine, but improvement, all expand ;
Our warriors conquer now and bless the land.
Hence are their arms resistless — Goorkhas bend,
The Affghans tremble, and our laws extend.
Soon Himalaya’s sacred mount will meet
Our empire and our morals at its feet.
The thirst of gold dissolved in love of fame,
To march to civilize, the general aim.
Mere conquest without blessing those we rule,
Would be the satire of our youngest school.
The generous soul of England’s antient days,
Flames in each son, and claims a hallowed praise.
Faith ; letters ; heroism — in all things great ;
All prove and magnify their parent state.
Each chieftain rises, towering in degree ;
Hastings form’d Wellesley, and Moira, He.
Nor be, Cornwallis ! thy fair name forgot ;
Blest in thine age, thy wisdom and thy lot.
The mind of Britain watches over all,
And for a righteous sway, severe, will call.’

Mr. Turner states in his preface that these compositions were occasioned by a long and severe indisposition, which allowed of no other than mental and solitary recreation or relief. While we admit

mit and regret the force of this reason for writing them, need we demur to the cogency of its authority for committing them to the press?

Art. 13. *Stanzas written on a Summer's Evening*; and other Poems. By George Milner, jun. 8vo. pp. 59. Longman and Co. 1820.

For the period of about six years of our critical labours, we found occasion to remark, concerning every alternate poem at least which came before us, that it was an imitation of (Sir) Walter Scott; and, for about the same period subsequently, we have had to observe that Lord Byron is the object of such copying. His Lordship has introduced the *whole mysterious and indistinct phraseology of the sublime*; and "*things*," without a name," abound in our poetical delineations.

' It is *not* grief that makes me sad;
It is *not* melancholy's power;
It is *not* that I once was glad,
And had not pass'd thro' sorrow's hour:
It is — that there are hearts which feel
The tender touch, the thrilling pain;
It is — that there are wounds which heal,
And only close to bleed again;
It is — that there are those who bear
The sullen calmness of despair.'

This is very *Byronian*: but it also, unfortunately, reminds us of the song,

" It is *not* cherry-bounce," &c.

Nevertheless, this little book contains some very tolerable passages; quite unexceptionable in sentiment, but of that epicene mode of expression which it is impossible to assign to the gender of either good or bad. What profit, or honour, can be derived from such versification, we are unable to imagine: but the amusement may be innocent, and may prevent worse employment.

" *Eh bien ! nos amis, continuons !*"

Art. 14. *Religion*; a Poem. 8vo. 1s. Baynes.

Art. 15. *The Sun*; a Poem, by the Author of '*Religion*.' 8vo. 6d. Baynes.

We read the first of these pamphlets without being able to comprehend the point or drift of it, and were glad therefore to have this matter expounded to us by *the Sun*; ("*Solem quis dicere falsum audeat?*") in which the author tells us that he intended '*Religion*' to be a poetic satire on the *ill use* and *abuse* of religion. We were indeed somewhat struck with a passage in the text, stating that conscience and reason would point out the way to religion, accompanied by the following comment:

' Religion is to make man good and happy; and if he, by following conscience and reason dictating this rule and precept, cannot be so, then, indeed, farewell religion! Yet, it is probable objectors

objectors will start up. Poor Pope had objectors when he asserted "whatever is, is right." The Bible is an improvement on religion; it is a refinement on religion; it is the sublimest of religion. Blessed book! (although I am convinced I could be good and happy without thee,) I have endeavoured in fancy as if I would set thee aside; as if I would disbelieve thee; nay, as if I would not know there ever were such a book, and the world at once (now I have known thee) has seemed a nothing—a blank—a void—hope sinks, and darkness and despair are before me!

We looked through the doggrel text a second time, and then glanced at the motto in the title-page, consisting of passages of Scripture oddly strung together; part of which convinced us that the poem was not intended for us, or else that the author was strangely mistaken in his conclusion. "I speak," says the motto, "as to wise men, judge ye what I say; that ye may approve things that are excellent." *The Sun*, however, is in a higher strain, and the very commencement proves the author to have studied and imitated Shakspeare with success:

' O glorious Orb! that mak'st thy way
Throughout our heav'ns and giv'st the day;
O Sun! that dost each day repeat
Thy task, to give us light and heat;
O glorious Orb! there's none that knows
The matter that does thee compose.'

No person, we think, can read this passage without being forcibly reminded of Pyramus's fine ejaculations:

" O grim-look'd night! O night with hue so black!
O night, which ever art when day is not!
O night, O night, alack, alack, alack,
I fear my Thisby's promise is forgot."

If, however, the author be somewhat of an imitator when speaking of the sun, he redeems his character for originality when he goes off to the planets: but our limits will not allow us to make farther extracts. The writer seems to be prompted by strong devotional feelings, of a peculiar cast; and we cannot permit ourselves to speak disrespectfully of the sentiment of piety, however excentric the mode may be in which it displays itself. Yet we should not be discharging our duty, if we did not in a marked manner discourage the author from any new attempts in poetry.

Art. 16. *Poems and a Meditation*. By S. Spence, Widow of the late G. Spence, sen. 8vo. Pamph. Baldwin and Co. 1821.

The longest of these two poems treats on the Millennium, and was occasioned, as Mrs. Spence tells us, by her having perused some lectures by an American on that subject; from which she favours her readers with a few extracts at the end of her poem, by way of illustration. They contain some novelties; and, among the rest, the author says "that he takes the chief prince of Meshech and Tubal to be the Grand Turk; and that it seems evident to him that Gog and Magog designate the Turks descended from the

REV. MAY, 1821.

H

Mogul

Mogul Tartars, who doubtless are the descendants from the ancient Scythians, whose original ancestor is supposed to be Magog the son of Japhet." Mrs. Spence's own rhapsody is written throughout in that "*adipatum scribendi genus*" which enthusiasts find "*aptum suis auribus*," but which to the uninitiated sounds unintelligible, or, when intelligible, profane. The other and brief poem is on poverty; and the meditation is printed in the form of prose.

Art. 17. *A Poetical Epistle to a Friend*, on the Subject of Missions, Schools, and Bibles. By a Non-confabulist. 8vo. Pamph. Richardson. 1820.

The principal merit of this pamphlet lies in the rhyme, and in two puns; one about a ship splitting on *Scilly* rocks, and the other on *Radicals* assuming command. The merit of the last pun, indeed, cannot be appreciated without an explanation, and therefore the author annexes a note to the word, acquainting those who are uninitiated in the Hebrew language, that 'the radicals of the Hebrews were never serviles, while the serviles were all occasionally radicals.'

Art. 18. *The Brothers*, a Monody; and other Poems. By Charles A. Elton, Author of a Translation of Hesiod, and of Specimens of the Classic Poets. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1820.

Few scholars are unacquainted with the merits of Mr. Elton as a classical translator: but we always have doubted his original powers as a poet. Not that he is too faithful to the style of his archetypes; on the contrary, he deviates widely from it: but, if we may venture to say it, he is too faithful to their subject-matter. We mean that Mr. Elton does not make sufficient allowance for the variety of idiom in ancient and modern languages; and that his *first* object has not been to write as such an author would have written in the translator's place. Who will not agree with us, when we venture to assert that Mr. Elton is formal, stiff, and pedantic, in his versions; because he has adopted the vain theory of writing Shakspearian or rather Wordsworthian English, when endeavouring to transfuse the thoughts of Grecian or Roman poetry into our native tongue? He has imbibed, in a word, a portion of that overweening boldness, which, in several critics and poets of our day, has chosen to undervalue the merits of Pope. REASON has been against him, as he has been against REASON; and we shall in vain look, throughout the whole of his varied versions, for a passage of decided brilliancy, of true and condensed representation of the thoughts of his original. Who will quote such ungenial and Gothic copies of the classics?

Having said this, in just discharge of our critical duties, and under the unavoidable fear of being mistaken in our praise of Mr. Elton, we now acknowledge the high approbation which we feel when contemplating his amiable and affectionate character of mind, as developed in the first of the poems now before us. How Mr. Elton could bring himself to publish that poem is another matter; and we own we are almost as much surprised at such

such a publication as we are disposed to sympathize in the cause of it. We deeply feel the sorrows of the father for the loss of his sons, and with all reverence for the sacredness of such affliction we quote the following lines :

‘ Oh promise early blighted ! blasted hopes !
Crush’d germs of mortal excellence ! false spell
Of earthly happiness dissolved for ever !
Lost friends ! dear lost companions ! vanish’d feet
Whose traces are upon the hills and shores,
Pursued, bewept, and linger’d on in vain ;
Follow’d with upward-gazing agony
From the bare mountains into opening clouds ;—
Oh ! found of God, but, oh ! how lost to me !—

We subjoin another very feeling passage, and heartily wish that it may be the last trial of the kind to the author :

‘ Our dwelling-house is desolate : this foot
Shall ne’er repass the threshold which ye pass’d :
Silence is in the walls that rang so late
To your sweet laughter, and th’ unheeded bird
Flits round the chamber of your happy sleep :
The plants ye loved are wither’d like yourselves :
The wrecks and relics of your curious search,
Gleanings from fields and woods, the air, and streams,
The weed, the pebble, and the insect’s wing,
Remain, the records of your innocent tastes ;
Remembrancers of days of happiness
That never can return : your pen’s known trace,
The limnings of your pencil’s opening skill, —
Oh, thought of agony ! — are these then all —
All that are left me of your lovely selves ?’ —

Art. 19. *The Outlaw of Taurus*. A Poem. To which are added, Scenes from Sophocles. By Thomas Dale, of Bene’t College, Cambridge, Author of “*The Widow of the City of Nain*.” 8vo. pp. 120. sewed. Richardson. 1820.

We had great pleasure, as we always have in announcing the rising merit of a young poet, when we reviewed “*The Widow of the City of Nain*” in our Number for November, 1819. The author now comes before us again, and we hope he will not suppose that we undervalue ‘*The Outlaw of Taurus*,’ if we direct our principal attention to the ‘*Scenes from Sophocles* ;’ for Mr. Dale is evidently a writer of very considerable classical attainments, and to them our first regard is due.

We are far from condemning, in the subjoined speech, the representation of the short Greek antispastics (be they Glyconian or Pherecratean) in English heroic blank verse : but we would recommend it to the author, as a general suggestion, to attempt, *as much as possible*, the preservation of the character and flow of the original measures ; because we are convinced that they emanated from the strong impulse of the poet’s mind, and that the im-

pressions of that mind will be best preserved by a faithful adherence to its modes of utterance.

' *Antigone.* ὦ ξῖνοι ἀιδόφρονες. κ. τ. λ.

Oh! yet one moment, venerable strangers!
Although ye shrunk recoiling from the words
Of my poor aged father, while he told
Of deeds most foul — yet most reluctant too —
I do conjure you, turn not thus from me,
While here, in bitter anguish, I implore
Your pity for my sire. With eye undimmed,
Save by continual tears, do I behold you!
Look on me as your own beloved daughter;
Think, think you hear her pleading for a parent,
And let the tender thought excite your mercy!
On you alone, as on the gods, our hopes,
Our latest hopes, depend. Oh, then, relent!
And grant the boon I dare not yet expect,
But cannot cease to hope. I would implore you.
By each fond tie affection loves to cherish;
Your infant-offspring, your paternal home,
Your smiling wife — your country's patron-God!
Where will ye find the man who can escape
When Heaven itself constrains him?

The speech of Œdipus which follows is amplified beyond necessity. We are aware of the difficulty of compressing the significant Greek within the bounds of energetic English: but it might be done, we think, more effectually than Mr. Dale has here even attempted. It is rather to the want of energy in particular expressions, than to any general redundancy, that we here object.

The scene between Antigone and Polynices is very well executed; and the final song of the chorus (although open to still more condensation, compatibly with poetic effect) is animated and dignified.

Ἐὶ θείμῃς ἰστί. κ. τ. λ.

' If to thee, eternal Queen,
Empress of the world unseen;
Mighty Pluto! if to thee
Hell's terrific deity,
Lips of mortal mould may dare
Breathe the solemn suppliant prayer;
Grant the stranger swift release!
Bid the mourner part in peace;
All his weary wanderings o'er,
Guide him to the Stygian shore;
Regions silent, dark, and deep;
Palace of eternal sleep.
Since relentless fate hath shed
Sorrows o'er thy guiltless head;
In thy pangs let mercy stay thee;
In the grave let rest repay thee.

Powers

Powers of night ! infernal maids !
 Tameless guardian of the shades !
 Who, as antique legends tell,
 Guard'st the brazen porch of Hell,
 And with ceaseless yell dost rave
 Fearful from thy gloomy cave ;
 Thou, whose mighty bulk of yore
 Earth to sable Tartarus bore ;
 Veil thy terrors — curb thine anger !
 Gently meet the passing stranger ;
 Thou, the ward of Hell who keepest !
 Thou, the guard who never sleepest !

We decidedly encourage this author to proceed in his honourable task. The more the Greek tragedians, especially Sophocles, are studied, the better ; — the better for classical taste, and for cultivated intellect.

In 'The Outlaw of Taurus,' which rests on a strange story in Eusebius, we discover many most poetical indications : but we think that Mr. Dale is best qualified for the imitation of the classics, if he puts out *all* his strength. Let him leave Lord Byron, and the *posse comitatus* of his followers, to their own honours.

POLITICS.

Art. 20. *Observations on certain verbal Disputes in Political Economy ; particularly relating to Value, and to Demand and Supply.* 8vo. pp. 84. 3s. Hunter.

As we have chemical dictionaries, musical dictionaries, law dictionaries, &c. explaining implements of art, and defining terms of science, to the great advantage of all young beginners, and frequently also of maturer students, we might suggest the expediency of preparing a dictionary of political economy : — but then, to give it weight and authority, it must have the fiat of a college of professors ; and this is an almost hopeless speculation, because it is the very discrepancy of these professors themselves, in the use of terms, that renders expedient some authoritative work of reference. "*Ce qu'il y a de vraiment important dans l'économie politique,*" says M. Say, in a note to his translation of Mr. Ricardo's work, "*c'est de savoir en quoi consistent les richesses, par quels moyens elles se multiplient et se détruisent ; et sur ces points essentiels, Smith, Buchanan, Malthus, Ricardo, et Say, sont heureusement d'accord.*" M. Say takes delight in startling his readers : he is excessively fond of a paradox, because it produces this effect ; and, with the same object in view, he indulges in the subtlest metaphysical refinements, and hazards the most extraordinary assertions. *These writers agreed !* Mr. Buchanan, the new editor and annotator of Adam Smith, combats many of that author's fundamental positions : the doctrine of Mr. Malthus differs essentially from that of Mr. Ricardo ; Mr. Ricardo refutes M. Say ; and even M. Say, the very writer who thus congratulates himself on the unanimity of this pentarchy of political economists, has published a

volume of Letters (see page 66, of this Number) in direct opposition to Mr. Malthus. He also levels very freely some back-handed blows at Mr. Ricardo; and eke at M. de Sismondi! "Call you this backing your friends?" It is the spectacle rather of a battle-royal than of a "holy-alliance!"

Half these disputes, however, are verbal; about terms which are used in different senses not only by different writers, but sometimes by the same writer: who forgets, at the end of his book, the definitions with which he started at the beginning. The ingenious author of the 'Observations' before us has brought forwards several instances of this inconsistency, and displays so much logical and lexicographical acuteness, that he shall, if he pleases, have our vote for the editorship of the dictionary which we recommend. He has the art of "untwisting the twist;" and a valuable art it is:

"For if one of the twines of the twist doth untwist,
The twine that untwisteth untwisteth the twist;
Untwirling the twine that untwisteth between,
He twirls with his twister the two in a twine.
The twain, that in twining before in the twine,
As twins were intwisted, he now doth untwine,
"Twixt the twain intertwisting a twine more between,
He, twirling his twister, makes a twist of the twine."

A short passage will exhibit the dexterity of this "cunning workman" in unravelling knotty skeins:

"That Mr. Ricardo has departed from his original use of the term *value*, and has made of it something absolute, instead of relative, is particularly evident in his chapter intitled "Value and Riches, their distinctive Properties." The question there discussed has been discussed also by others, and is purely verbal and useless; though people are fond of supposing that they are engaged in a difficult investigation into the nature of things, when they are only disagreeing about the meaning of words.

'It may be thus stated:—"Raise the quantity of labour required to produce article A. Its value is raised. Do the same to B. Its value is raised. So on to C, &c., till you have thus raised the quantity of labour required to produce *all* articles. Is not then the value of *all* raised; and are not, therefore, supposing the *quantity* to remain as before, the owners of all, the country, the world, richer?"—No. The rise of value of article A only means *value estimated* in articles B, C, &c.; *i. e.* value in exchange for articles B, C, &c. They, taken together, fall just as much with reference to A, or, *estimated in A*. The re-action (if I may use the metaphor) is equal to the action. So when B rises in its turn, that again lowers the value of A (and of all others except B) *estimated in B*, and so on. The value of the whole, then, has not risen at all.

"Value, then," Mr. Ricardo observes, p. 340., "essentially differs from riches." One would think, it could hardly have been supposed they were the same. Value is a property of things, riches of men. Value, in this sense, necessarily implies exchange; riches do not.

Art. 21. *An Inquiry into those Principles respecting the Nature of Demand and the Necessity of Consumption*, lately advocated by Mr. Malthus, from which it is concluded that Taxation and the Maintenance of Unproductive Consumers can be conducive to the Progress of Wealth. 8vo. pp. 128. 4s. Hunter. 1821.

"Up to this time, things passed off without any noise; and, thank Heaven! nobody kicked against my prescriptions:—but, however excellent is the practice of a physician, somebody or other is always sure to find fault with it." This was the sage remark of that very learned professor of medicine, Gil Blas, after his quarrel with the fiery little doctor Cuchillo. They had both been called to visit a grocer's son in the last stage of dropsy; Gil Blas, on the authority of his great master, the illustrious Sangrado, prescribed copious bleedings, and immeasurable draughts of hot water: while Cuchillo quoted Celsus in favour of abstinence from liquids under this disorder, and called Sangrado a fool. Gil Blas returned the civility with interest; and the two doctors, forgetful of their dying patient, soon came to fisticuffs by his bed-side, so that it was not an easy matter for the grocer, with the assistance of his shopman, to separate them.

To see the country sinking under a chronic disorder which is daily exhibiting more aggravated and alarming symptoms, while the attendant physicians, both in and out of parliament, are quarrelling about the nature of it, and about the efficacy of their respective prescriptions, may well remind us of the disputes between Gil Blas and Cuchillo. One set of doctors attributes the present disease of the country to *deficient consumption*; a second, to excessive production; while a third calls them both fools, and contends that there can be no such thing as excess of production or deficiency of consumption, because the one is of necessity a measure of the other, since production, M. Say asserts, always opens a market for production. When there is a glut of commodities, the way to cure it is to produce more; when you are dropsical, drink, drink: "*chaque produit créé est un débouché ouvert, et chaque produit détruit ou consommé est un débouché fermé.*" — "*Tout ce qui peut se produire peut trouver des consommateurs!*"

The question, which is the more immediate subject of investigation in the pamphlet before us, has already been introduced in our notice of Mr. Malthus's work on political economy in a preceding portion of this Number; where we stated, briefly, but we trust with tolerable correctness, his views of the nature of demand and supply, and the opposite ideas of M. Say. We cannot spare room to renew the discussion; and indeed the market is so glutted with publications on political economy, that, notwithstanding M. Say's notion that consumption always keeps pace with production, we should anticipate the nausea of a surfeit in devoting a larger portion of our pages to these interminable disputes. Any person, however, who is disposed to fathom the question, will do well to read the present Inquiry, which is written with considerable ability and acuteness; and we

must say that the inference which Mr. Malthus has chosen to draw from his view of it, so convenient and acceptable to the "powers that be," (namely, that taxation and the maintenance of unproductive consumers are conducive to the progress of wealth,) is here refuted with great precision and force of argument.

With respect to the general distress which prevails in this kingdom, if a *rapid* depreciation of the products of the earth may be fairly considered as one of the proximate causes of it, we must look to other and more remote sources for its origin. All climates and countries have their own peculiar productions, and the industry of every people shoots out in its own favourite and peculiar directions. The consequence is that all possess a superabundance of certain articles of product and manufacture, which they are glad to exchange for other articles that they want. All Europe, and indeed the whole civilized world, is thus supplied: the deficiencies of some countries being remedied by the superfluities of others; and the wants and the consumption of each encouraging the productions of all others, as well as of its own. Any long-continued obstruction, therefore, must derange this salutary circulation, this beneficial system of interchange and reciprocal accommodation. During the last unhappy war, not only was every link in the commercial chain which had previously connected together the various nations of Europe, even during their hostilities, snapped asunder, but the intercourse also of Europe with America was violently interrupted. The ball which we fired at the enemy rebounded,

" And, like a devilish engine, back recoiled
Upon ourselves."

Before that time, neutral bottoms always made neutral goods: but, in our impolitic zeal to destroy the entire commerce of France by means of our maritime superiority, we assumed the right of search; and, after having annihilated the fleets of our enemy, we refused to allow any European neutral nation to hold commerce with France, or even to suffer America to carry on the commerce between that country and her own West-Indian colonies. If, however, we were omnipotent at sea, France was equally powerful on land; and Bonaparte, turning our own weapons against us, endeavoured hermetically to close every market on the Continent against British manufactures. Even this was not all: our measures drove America to war with us, and the consequence was that we lost one of the largest outlets for our commodities.

Peace came at last: but hitherto it has afforded us only "a death-like silence and a dread repose;" a melancholy leisure for contemplating, in all its extent and horror, the devastation of war. While the hurricane rages, the mind is absorbed in a state of tumult and agitation between hope and fear; — it is in the calm of evening, and when the contending elements are hushed, that we walk abroad and mourn over the desolation around us, — the shattered forest, the uprooted canes, the ripened ears of corn, cut from their brittle stems, and lying on the earth,

" Thick

" Thick as autumnal leaves, that strew the brooks
In Valambrosa."

It must be evident, observed the Marquess of Lansdown in his motion for the appointment of a committee on foreign-trade, that when, for a number of years, twenty or thirty millions (or whatever the amount might be, but always a large sum) had been taken from the capital of the country to be used in the expenditure of the government, a great additional demand must necessarily be created. The natural consequence of that demand was to cause an increased supply, which would be still farther augmented by the consumption of those individuals who would derive a great part of their support, indirectly, from that increased expenditure. When this enlarged expenditure ceased, it was followed of course by a great decrease of demand, and a proportionate diminution of consumption; while, by bringing back the standard to its original value, the amount of taxation pressed more heavily on the diminished means of the community. The only remedy, therefore, for the distress thus occasioned, is to be found in economy, and retrenchment of the public expenditure. Economy, however, is a foe to patronage; and patronage, being a first favourite at court, keeps its enemy at a distance.

HISTORY, &c.

Art. 22. *An Abridgement of the History of England*, from the Invasion of Julius Cæsar to the Death of George II. By Dr. Goldsmith; with a Continuation to the Commencement of the Reign of George IV. By the Rev. Alexander Stewart. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Whittakers. 1821.

Mr. Stewart's continuation of Goldsmith is written with considerable ability: but we could have wished to discover, in a work intended for youth, a spirit of impartiality; whereas Mr. S. far exceeds his predecessor in his Tory prejudices, and in his partiality for what are called high-government principles. — Subjoined is a long series of questions, which, we think, must prove serviceable as exercises for young students in the history of England.

Art. 23. *Historical Memoirs of the City of Armagh*, for a Period of 1373 Years: comprizing a considerable Portion of the general History of Ireland; a Refutation of the Opinions of Dr. Ledwich, respecting the Non-existence of St. Patrick; and an Appendix on the Learning, Antiquities, and Religion of the Irish Nation. By James Stuart, A. B. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Printed at Newry; and sold in London by Longman and Co.

We can recommend this volume to the attention of our readers, as one of the most complete local histories that has fallen under our notice. Among the most interesting parts of it, are those which are occupied with memoirs of the primates of all Ireland, since the Reformation; among whom, the reader will recollect, are to be numbered those eminently learned prelates, Ussher, Bramhall,

Bramhall, and Newcome: while the account of the primates *before* the Reformation, and of the titular primates since, gives a more comprehensive view of the leading Catholic ecclesiastics in Ireland during the ascendancy, and since their humiliation, than we are aware of being able to find in any other compilation:—but the history of the Dissenters, which is incorporated, particularly of the Presbyterians, is not quite so minute as we expected. We do not, however, recollect to have met before with the following story of the first reception given to that pious and elegant moralist, Francis Hutcheson, as a preacher in his father's neighbourhood, and it certainly deserves to be recorded:

‘ After six years spent in study at Glasgow, he returned to his native country, and preached as a probationer before various congregations, some of which were highly pleased with his eloquent discourses, while others totally disapproved of his doctrines. At Armagh, his father, who laboured under a slight rheumatic affection, deputed him to preach in his place, on a cold and rainy Sunday. About two hours after Francis had left Ballyrea, the rain abated—the sun shone forth—the day became serene and warm—and Dr. Hutcheson, who found his spirits exhilarated by the change, felt anxious to collect the opinions of his congregation on the merits of his favourite son, and proceeded directly to the city. How was he astonished and chagrined when he met almost the whole of his flock coming from the meeting-house, with strong marks of disappointment and disgust visible in their countenances. One of the elders, a native of Scotland, addressed the surprized and deeply mortified father thus:—“ We a’ feel muckle wae for your mishap, reverend sir; but it canna be concealed. Your silly loon, Frank, has fashed a’ the congregation wi’ his idle cackle; for he has been babbling this oor aboot a gude and benevolent God, and that the sauls of the Heathens themsels will gang to heaven, if they follow the light of their ain consciences. Not a word does the daft boy ken, speer, or say about the gude auld comfortable doctrines of election, reprobation, original sin, and fath. Hoot, mon, awa’ wi’ sic a fellow!”

The least amusing parts of this work, to a general reader, are those which we doubt not will give the greatest pleasure to Irish antiquaries. Many pages are occupied in discussing the dates of relics, of which the age and appearance forbid any thing to be ascertained respecting them with certainty; and the Englishman would but little expect to find such a fund of valuable information and of entertainment, as this volume contains, when he is encountered at the outset by a dissertation of seventy pages, written to refute Dr. Ledwich, and to prove the existence of St. Patrick. On this subject we shall merely observe that, though some of Mr. Stuart's arguments are extremely well put, he has not succeeded in removing our scepticism. This, too, is the only part of the book in which Mr. Stuart has allowed his prepossessions to betray him into intemperance: but much may be said to extenuate, if not to justify, the warmth of a patriotic antiquary. It is certainly one of the most excusable and one of the most innocent sorts of holy zeal.

Should

Should Mr. Stuart be encouraged to publish a second edition, which we hope he may, we trust that he will retrench a little of his antiquarian lore, and condense some portions of his account of the earlier periods of Irish history. We could wish, also, to have some details of the state of the flax and hemp grown through the county of Armagh; though, in a work professedly treating of the city alone, we cannot mark the omission of such details as any deficiency, strictly speaking. Mr. S. does, indeed, give a statement of the manufacture and the weekly sales of linen in the city of Armagh; with tables of the corn-market there during the year ending in January, 1819, and of the Newry-exports during the same period.

L A W.

Art. 24. *Report of the Committee of the Society for the Improvement of Prison Discipline, and for the Reformation of Juvenile Offenders.* 1820. With an Appendix. 8vo. pp. 210. 2s. Arch.

We have so frequently noticed the benevolent and intelligent efforts of this institution, that it is only necessary for us now to state that, by this Report of its proceedings, it appears that the effect of its exertions has been gradual, and is likely to be permanent. This is the season, we believe, when the annual meeting is usually held; and we are sure that those who feel an interest in reforming criminals, and consequently reducing their number, (and who can be devoid of such an interest?) will not withhold the assistance of either their time or their talents, or of their patronage and pecuniary support, to so valuable an establishment: especially when it is considered that, while the committee devote their principal attention to the amelioration of the prisons in this kingdom, they have not refused their advice and assistance to foreign states, in several of which the most beneficial results have been produced by the adoption of their philanthropic suggestions.

The Appendix to this publication contains many valuable documents and interesting details. In Russia, and in France, we find that the royal protection has been extended to societies founded in imitation of our own; and in various other places, both in Europe and America, similar effects of its influence are strikingly apparent. Above all, however, we are rejoiced to perceive the benefit which has been already produced in our own prisons by the spirit which the Society has awakened; and the details given demonstrate that, while the members of the committee deserve the gratitude of their countrymen for their past exertions, they merit their co-operation and support in the extensive field in which they have still to toil.

Art. 25. *A Letter from a Grandfather to his Grandson, an Articled Clerk; pointing out the right Course of his Studies and Conduct during his Clerkship, in order to his successful Establishment in his Profession.* By Jacob Phillips, of the Inner Temple, Esq., formerly an articled Clerk. 12mo. pp. 181. Wilson.

Although

Although this letter is perhaps a little too minute in some of its details, it contains much advice which will be useful to the young articulated clerk when entering on the study of his profession: but, as the author has confined his attention to country-practice, and even there has limited his observations almost exclusively to the branch of conveyancing, he must not expect that extended circulation for his book which it would deserve, and probably obtain, were its matter more applicable to "the London market." Some of his examples of notes are rather too learned for an elementary book, and might be altogether omitted, consistently with his plan: while, by supplying their place with a few judicious remarks on *general practice*, Mr. Phillips's treatise would be rendered an useful *vade mecum* to the young persons for whose benefit he writes.

M E D I C I N E.

Art. 26. *Observations on the Prevalence of Fever, in various Parts of the United Kingdom; and on the eminent Utility of Houses of Recovery: exhibiting the great Advantages that would result from such an Institution for the Reception of the Sick Poor of Bristol and Clifton.* By D. J. H. Dickson, M.D. 8vo. pp. 34. Printed at Bristol.

That no house of recovery, for patients afflicted with fever, existed in Bristol or Clifton, when Dr. Dickson wrote this pamphlet, is a circumstance well calculated to excite our surprize: but we apprehend that it furnishes a proof of the comparative rarity of fever in these places. In p. 11., however, we have distinct evidence of the increase of fever in Bristol, although by no means in the ratio observed in many other cities. The subsidence of epidemic fever has now deprived this subject of much of its interest; yet we still consider the pages of Dr. Dickson as well deserving of perusal; and we trust that the deficiency there pointed out has been or soon will be supplied. A house of recovery can never be altogether unnecessary in such a city as Bristol, containing so numerous and crowded a population, and receiving daily such numbers of strangers, not only from different parts of the empire but from distant quarters of the globe.

Art. 27. *Instructions for the Relief of the Sick Poor, in some Diseases of frequent Occurrence: addressed to a Parochial Clergyman, residing at a Distance from professional Aid.* By a Physician. Second Edition. 12mo. pp. 46. 1s. 6d. Cadell. 1820.

This is a very neat and compendious code of instructions for the government of a parochial clergyman, in the advice which he should give for the management of the sick poor within his district. In some particulars, however, we must be allowed to make an exception to this praise. The author has declined to enter into the treatment of the eruptive diseases of children, (measles, small-pox, and scarlet-fever,) in many cases of which a very simple treatment is perfectly adequate to conduct the patient through the disease

disease in safety; and in all of which we may apprehend great danger from the operation of deep-rooted popular prejudices. Hooping cough, also, is not once mentioned: nor are ruptures, which the labouring poor are so apt to neglect until their lives are in danger, or beyond the help of surgery. In the treatment of febrile diseases, various medicated drinks are specified: but not a syllable is said of allowing the patient the most grateful of all beverages, a draught of cold water. The author appears to entertain a great horror for tea, which he has named *lerna malorum*: yet he recommends its use in several complaints. Cold tea, or tea infused in cold water, we know to have great power in quenching urgent thirst. Fresh butter, taken in large quantities, is, in the opinion of this physician, productive of very beneficial effects in pulmonary consumption; and to this cause he refers the reported infrequency of that disease in Norway and Lapland. The fox-glove is very properly introduced as a valuable remedy in different pulmonary complaints: but we are sorry to observe no caution given against pushing this very active drug to a dangerous extent. — The prescriptions of this author are, we may say without exception, elegant, and his culinary instructions are excellent: but we wish that he had mentioned potatoe-starch, and flummery made from the fermented refuse of oatmeal, as cheap and good substitutes for Indian arrow-root.

The work is written in a clear and succinct manner; and we beg to recommend it to the valuable class of men for whom it is written, as the portable companion of their parochial visits, and the means of enabling them to perform many acts of benevolence.

E D U C A T I O N.

Art. 28. *Rosamond*, a Sequel to *Early Lessons*. By Maria Edgeworth. Small 12mo. 2 Vols. 5s. half-bound. Hunter. 1821.

Miss Edgeworth's *Rosamond* has long been a favourite with us, and, we doubt not, with many other readers, both old and young; who will feel grateful to this excellent writer for completing the annals of her childhood in these pleasing, animated, and useful volumes. We are happy to recommend them in the strongest manner; although we must notice a little historical oversight, in the second volume, p. 25., where Christina of Sweden is said to have been 'the daughter of Gustavus Vasa.' She was the daughter of Gustavus Adolphus, and collaterally descended from Gustavus Vasa.

Art. 29. *Historical Prints*, representing some of the most memorable Events in English History, in which the Costumes of the Times are carefully preserved. With Descriptions, by Emily Taylor. Small 12mo. Half-bound. Harvey and Darton. 1821.

Miss Taylor's designs were probably very superior to these engravings; which have been so unskillfully executed, that we see hands and even fingers made longer than the arms to which they are appended,

appended, and scarcely a single face or form that is not *out of drawing*. The descriptions might have been more *piquant*, if the writer had extended her search for anecdotes to such works as Froissart's gossiping History, and others of the same class : but even now they may be deemed attractive; and they also possess the merit of historic truth.

NOVELS.

Art. 30. *Petrarch and Laura*. By Madame de Genlis. Translated from the French. 12mo. 2 Vols. Boards. Colburn. 1820.

Madame de Genlis has evinced much industry in her endeavours to obtain documents and authorities respecting these celebrated lovers; and she professes to have swerved from history and tradition but in one instance, when she describes Laura as having been eminently beautiful, though it is generally supposed that her loveliness existed chiefly in the imagination of the poet. It might have afforded a greater triumph to the talents of the authoress, if she had more strictly adhered to the received opinion; and it would not have been a task beyond her powers to make Laura an attractive personage, even without the recommendation of beauty : since she has already, in her novel of Jeanne de France, excited the deepest sympathy and interest for a being still less gifted with external charms.

Art. 31. *Scheming*. 12mo. 3 Vols. Boards. Colburn. 1821.

This novel may be enlivened by some laughable touches of coarse humour, but they are too indelicate to merit the attention of our fair readers; and the writer is evidently unacquainted with the common usages of polite life, although he affects to pourtray them.

Art. 32. *Traits and Trials*. 12mo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Cawthorn. 1821.

A pretty little tale; in which we find more discernment of character and acquaintance with human nature than are usually discoverable in the 'first attempts' of novel-writers.

Art. 33. *St. Aubin*; or, *The Infidel*. 12mo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Whittakers. 1821.

We cannot recommend this as being an interesting work. The infidel St. Aubin is certainly painted in colours sufficiently revolting: but Theresa's concealment of her marriage, and the other incidents which enable him to achieve his nefarious purposes, are totally improbable; and his victims are all such personages as

— " might be worshipped on the bended knee,
And still the second dread command be free —
Their likeness is not found on earth, in air, or sea."

Art. 34. *The Village of Mariendorpt*; a Tale. By Miss Anna Maria Porter, Author of the "Fast of St. Magdalen," "Knight of St. John," &c. &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 11. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1821.

Throughout

Throughout this lady's novels, considerable interest is always excited by amiable and noble characters, whose sentiments and adventures leave an impression favourable to virtue; and to this essential merit she unites, in the present instance, that of having incorporated some historical facts with the fictitious narrative; the scene lying in Bavaria, and the time being about the year 1640, when the wars between Catholics and Protestants had nearly desolated Germany. The chief fault of the tale is a want of variety in the personages, so many being introduced who are very estimable, and all alike. By a constant attempt at fine writing, also, Miss Porter renders her style hyperbolical and affected; as the following sentence, taken nearly at random, may serve to demonstrate: Vol. i. p. 51., 'She advanced with a step like stealing dews, and speaking in a voice softer than falling Down!'

Art. 35. *Such is the World.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 11. 1s. sewed. Whittakers. 1821.

In a rather pompous preface, the exhibition of nature and novelty, "men and manners," is promised to the reader of this book: but it proves to be a mere common-place and improbable love-story, shewing how a beautiful young lady was stolen from her friends during her infancy, and afterward discovered certain old letters and baby-caps, which enabled her

— "to expose
The villanies and wiles of her determined foes!"

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 36. *Narrative of an interesting Trial at Law, (founded on Mystery,)* with Hints to the Whigs on the close Borough System. 8vo. 3s. Printed at Southampton.

Although this pamphlet bears such an imposing title as would lead a stranger to think it related to some recent events of the highest national interest, it is merely a narrative of a trial at Dorchester assizes, in which the author, Mr. Burrige, a solicitor, was the plaintiff, and Mr. Deyton was the defendant. The action originated in an anonymous letter tending to the prejudice of Mr. Burrige's character, and which he believed to be in the handwriting of Mr. Deyton: but the jury thought otherwise. Mr. Burrige has also added remarks on the Queen's trial, and on the borough-system; and he considers himself, he says, more injured than the Queen. We are not acquainted with the local and personal circumstances of this case, and cannot undertake to be judges of the matter.

Art. 37. *Observations upon Sunday Newspapers.* By a Layman. 8vo. pp. 138. 3s. 6d. Hatchard. 1820.

The Sunday news-papers are printed, like all other morning-papers, in the evening or night preceding their publication; so that in fact they are worked off on the Saturday, or at least before any observance of Sunday takes place. The sentiments, however, contained in these Sunday papers are stated to be irreligious and seditious;

sedition; and the author of the present 'Observations' assures us that some of them recommend dangerous innovations, 'under the fallacious pretext of Catholic emancipation,' while others promulgate doctrines 'which have never been preached so plainly except by Hugh Peters at Whitehall, and by Dr. Price in the Old Jewry.' If the sentiments contained be in fact *irreligious*, the courts of law are open for the prosecution of the offenders; and, while the Judges of the land agree in proclaiming from the bench that Christianity is "part and parcel of the common law of England," we cannot see any great reason to fear that the preachers of irreligion can escape with impunity. If, again, the sentiments be *sedition*, the existing laws take cognizance also of seditious publications; and the circumstance of their coming forth on a Sunday would be no justification in a court of law. — We dislike all indirect attacks on the liberty of the press; and we cannot conceal our indignation at that hypocrisy, which would disguise its political aims under the veil of religious zeal.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are sorry that, just at present, some obstacles prevent us from an early compliance with the request of Dr. B.: — but we shall bear it in mind.

Justitia has our thanks: we cannot say more now.

R. S. will find an account of the work which he mentions in our Review for April.

☞ The Appendix to the last Volume is published with the present Number, and contains numerous FOREIGN ARTICLES, with the *Title, Index, &c.*

* * We again recommend to the notice of our readers the lately published GENERAL INDEX to the whole of the *New Series* of the Monthly Review, in two large vols. 8vo.; as not only a most convenient but a necessary guide to that (now) extensive portion of our work, and to the *History of Literature* for the period which it includes.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JUNE, 1821.

ART. I. *Travels in Sicily, Greece, and Albania.* By the Rev. Thos. Smart Hughes, Fellow of Emmanuel College, Cambridge. Illustrated with Engravings of Maps, Scenery, Plans, &c. 2 Vols. 4to. 5l. 5s. Boards. Mawman. 1820.

WE have been supplied almost to satiety with travels through the countries traversed by Mr. Hughes: but it by no means follows that new information will not be found, and new pleasure experienced, in revisiting with an intelligent and lively guide those delightful scenes which are consecrated by ancient renown, and embellished with every charm of local beauty. In truth, there must for ever be a changeful and shifting appearance in these sublime objects, not merely in their impression on the physical organs, but in the colouring with which they are depicted, and in the associations with which they are linked in that eye of the mind which they are so well fitted to fascinate and delight;—that inward contemplation, which recalls high and interesting subjects in hues more vivid and glowing than those that enchant the outward vision,—and derives, even from regions already explored, fresh and undisturbed treasures of meditation.

For this reason, therefore, we generally abstain from the complaint which is often made when a new book of travels comes into the world. Well aware how hopeless it is to discourage the instincts of travellers to write and print their tours, we content ourselves with dwelling chiefly on those from whose labours instruction or amusement is to be derived: for we perceive a certain unpicturesque mode of delineation, and a formal and methodical but heavy and unimpressive style of observation, in many travellers, which leaves the scenes that they visit so undescribed, or described so faintly and obscurely, that, when we meet with the same subjects touched by a more potent pencil, and endued with a more “ethereal vigour,” we view them as for the first time in all the gloss of their original freshness.

REV. JUNE, 1821.

I

Greece

Greece has been of late nearly as much visited as France. Some tourists have carried thither their erudition, lumbering like the pilgrim's wallet at their backs; while others have compiled their journals and illustrated them by a patient reference to the indexes of historians and geographers, when they returned: but, after all, Greece is a country which the professed antiquary and the classical pedant may labour to describe, but cannot elucidate; and, much as we may pride ourselves on the minute and detailed accuracy with which the travellers of our own day have explored its monuments and reliques, perhaps a truly graphical and at the same time pleasing survey of them is still a desideratum. This, however, we must remark, for we have frequently felt it, that, though recent researches surpass the former in fidelity and correctness, and are free from the flippant petulance of Sonnini and the writers of the same school, *the art of travelling in Greece*, if we may use the expression, has received but slight improvements since the honest and amusing relation of Sir George Wheler. We have indeed every thing exactly measured, the diameters of columns, the proportions of temples, their friezes and entablatures, with the sites of memorable towns, and the identity of ruins;—of this species of learning we have enough, and more:—but is not something still wanting to give Greece at once to the eye and the heart; something between poetry and philosophy; or, rather, all that we have of philosophical in poetry and of poetic in philosophy, to reflect the image of her external charms and her moral grandeur?

We do not intend to pay Mr. Hughes the extravagant compliment of having supplied that desideratum, or having done more than approximate to the *beau idéal* of a Grecian traveller, which we have thus permitted our imaginations to sketch: but he has thrown the fascinations of taste and genius over the driest portions of his subject, and rendered no injustice to its sublimer topics. He has evidently travelled through Greece with an understanding rightly disciplined and trained for his pilgrimage; has surveyed it with his mind as well as his eye; and has carried over "that country of the soul" the recollections imparted by her poets and her historians, which embellish and consecrate the memorials of her departed greatness.* If we feel ourselves compelled to

* We were prepared to expect from Mr. Hughes's pen, when treating of countries dear to learning and the arts, a work deserving of this praise, by his prize-poem, noticed in our lxxxvith vol. p. 97.

temper this honest panegyric, it is because his style is sometimes too laboured and declamatory, — and, when his enthusiasm is powerfully awakened, reels as it were with the intoxication of his feelings. Yet who will not pardon these freaks and curvettings of a warm imagination, in the delightful windings of Tempe, on the awful steeps of Delphi, or by the inspiring streams of the Ilissus or Cephissus? *Χῶρος δ' οὐδεὶς ἐστὶν.*

It is not, however, our intention to offer specimens of this entertaining work from those parts of it in which Mr. H. has been preceded in his researches by Clarke, Holland, or Dodwell, because we have been somewhat recently and copiously occupied with their labours; and we shall confine ourselves to citations of those passages in which he has given the charm of novelty to familiar scenes, or delineated such as have been rarely visited.

On the first of May, 1813, Mr. Hughes beheld the classic shores of Sicily, and the fantastic summits of the semicircle of mountains that surrounds the “golden shell” in which the city of Palermo is represented by Sicilian poetry as set like a pearl. Palermo has been often and well described: but we must quote Mr. Hughes's picture of the abortive experiment of a political regeneration, which was so inauspiciously made in that island.

‘No words can describe the scenes which daily occurred upon the introduction of the representative system in Sicily. The house of parliament, neither moderated by discretion nor conducted with dignity, bore the semblance of a receptacle for lunatics, instead of a council-room for legislators; and the disgraceful scenes so often enacted at the hustings in England, were here transferred to the very floor of the senate. As soon as the president had proposed the subject for debate, and restored some degree of order from the confusion of tongues that followed, a system of crimination and recrimination was invariably commenced by several speakers, accompanied with such furious gesticulations and hideous contortions of countenance, such bitter taunts and personal invectives, that blows generally ensued: this was the signal for universal uproar; the president's voice was unheeded and unheard; the whole house arose, and partisans of different antagonists mingled in the affray, when the ground was literally seen covered with combatants, kicking, biting, scratching, and exhibiting all the evolutions and manœuvres of the old Pancratic contests. Such a state of things could not be expected to last a long time: indeed this constitutional synod was dissolved in the very first year of its creation, and martial law established. The fault of the British government seems to have consisted in this, that it went too far for the furtherance of tranquillity, and not far enough for the security of civil

civil liberty: it endeavoured to make a representative government amalgamate with feudal rights, ecclesiastical privileges, and a wretched system of bigotry and intolerance. Either it ought to have first levelled these obstructions before it built up the sacred edifice of freedom, or have contented itself with introducing some practical reform into the established system of Sicilian legislature. For instance, it might have obliged the nominal authorities to correct their worst abuses, to abolish certain rights and tenures relating to the non-alienation of land, to reform the police, the courts of justice, and the iniquitous tribunal of patrimony, to destroy monopolies, and abrogate the odious corn-laws, which not only deprive the agriculturist of his fair reward, but press upon the people more heavily than those of the Romans under the administration of the infamous Verres. These, or some of these advantages might have remained to our unfortunate allies at the conclusion of the war, whereas that constitution, so beautiful in theory, which rose at once, like a fairy-palace, to perfection, vanished also like that baseless fabric without having left a trace of its existence.'

Mr. H. gives a deplorable picture of Sicilian manners, and represents the amusements of Palermo as dull and insipid. A suite of rooms is there called the *conversazione*, like *lucus a non lucendo*, no conversation ever taking place in them, but the building being a temple dedicated to gaming and intrigue: the husband losing his money at the table, and his wife recovering it by the sale of her charms. The author deduces this mischief from the vices of female education. Girls rush into society at an early and inexperienced age from the gloomy restraints of a convent, with minds wholly uninstructed and vacant; and marriage is regarded as an affair of traffic. 'A young lady,' he says, 'was offered to my friend with less ceremony than a horse would be submitted to a person desirous to purchase.' The higher classes also practise the most degrading familiarity with their inferiors; a nobleman of the first rank being frequently found seated between his cook and his butler, to enjoy a social chat in the evening: while both sexes spit without ceremony on the drawing-room floor, and carry off confectionary and other fragments in their pockets. It may be supposed that literature and science are at the lowest ebb; and there are more antiquarians than scholars, and more pedants than either. Inebriety rarely occurs, but the stiletto is still used by the populace, who are unrestrained by any police. When the most atrocious crimes are committed, no measure is taken for the detection of the perpetrators, but justice is put up to auction.

After a month's residence in Palermo, the author visited the magnificent site of the ancient Agrigentum, once the most
flour-

flourishing of the Greek colonies. The Agrigentines built, according to a saying of their own Empedocles, as if they were to live for ever, and lived as if they expected to die to-morrow. Mr. Hughes examined with the eye of a scholar the splendid ruins which attest the former grandeur of the city; particularly the remains of a temple dedicated to Hercules, which in size and plan resembled the Athenian Parthenon. At a slight distance from these ruins, are the vestiges of a large building raised on pilasters, which, from its vicinity to the sea, (a circumstance mentioned by Cicero,) he conjectures to have been part of the antient forum of that great commercial city: but, of all the edifices which adorned Agrigentum, none surpassed in grandeur and magnificence the temple of Olympian Jupiter. This mighty monument of human genius seems to have been built for eternity: yet by that strange chance, which so often confounds the devices of man, every trace of it has nearly disappeared. As to its extent and ornaments, Mr. H. cites Polybius and Diodorus. It was hypæthral, and on the vast pilasters of the cella stood enormous statues, representing the giants who had been vanquished in the Titanic war; and who were here made to sustain, after the manner of caryatids, the entablature of the temple. Hence the city-arms of Girgenti, three giants supporting a tower, derive their origin. Three of these caryatids (Mr. Hughes errs in giving this appellation to male statues) remained till the year 1401, when they fell, owing to the shameful neglect of the inhabitants.

Two elegant columns of the temple of Vulcan, the locality of which Mr. Hughes has identified from Pliny and Solinus; two conical hills, including a beautiful plain of turf between them, the spot assigned by tradition for the exercise of those noble Agrigentine steeds which so often carried the Olympic prizes; and the celebrated Piscina, a vast reservoir, dug out by the Carthaginian prisoners who were taken in the battle of Himera; are the chief objects on the southern barrier of Agrigentum. A little above the conflux of the Hypsas and Acragas, which flow into the antient port, are some remains of the temple of Esculapius, of which the site is accurately determined by Polybius. From this spot, the ruins on the southern precipice appear like monuments on the proscenium of an immense theatre. On a part of the plain near the city, enormous fragments may be seen of those celebrated walls which were so immense that they were used for sepulchres, and turned into a vast mural cemetery. In one fragment alone, Mr. Hughes counted twenty-three sarcophagi. For the other antiquities of this interesting spot, we refer to the work, and

particularly to the learned illustrations contained in the notes, which constitute no slight portion of its value.

The modern city of Girgenti, which stands on the summit of Mount Camicus, is meanly built, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants. In the cathedral are some fine remains of antiquity; and among others a sarcophagus, of which the animated sculpture is supposed to represent the death of Phintias, a tyrant of Agrigentum, who was killed in a wild-boar chase. Of this monument we have now some exquisite casts in the British Museum. As the whole city does not contain an inn fit for the accommodation even of an Hottentot, Mr. Hughes and his companion accepted the hospitality of the venerable Padre Scrivani, sub-prior of the Dominican convent; and he speaks with a degree of liberality of the Sicilian ecclesiastics that does him honour. 'The annual stipend of our host,' he says, 'did not exceed 45 dollars; the daily fare in the refectory was a little shell-fish, eggs, salad, and bread; wine being moderately used, and meat rarely seen. Out of their scanty revenues, the monks make a daily distribution of bread and soup to the poor, and afford lodging to those who would otherwise depend upon casual benevolence.'

Mr. Hughes next directed his course towards Syracuse, where he was housed in a comfortable inn, the *Leon d'oro*, near the edge of the great harbour; over which it commands a delightful prospect, bounded by the crags of Epipolæ and the Hyblæan mountains. Early in the morning, he flew on the wings of impatience to the fountain of Arethusa. The antient Greek legend of this far-famed fount seems to be still preserved among the popular traditions of the country. In answer to his inquiries,

'One good woman wishing to impart all the information in her power, with much naiveté and a variety of gesture, repeated to me a long story about a beautiful signorina, who being persecuted by a magician, fled to the fountain and drowned herself: that her pursuer coming up and finding her dead body, out of revenge changed the water from sweet to bitter; and then threw himself into the sea, where the waves have been in a state of perturbation ever since. She directed me to look over the wall into the great harbour. I turned towards an angle of the bastion, and perceived a strong ebullient spring rising violently to the surface.

'Few things are more extraordinary than this blind belief of the ancients in the incredible story of Alpheus and Arethusa: poets indeed are licensed persons, and regular traders in fiction since the world began; but when so grave a character as Pliny assures us seriously, in a treatise upon natural philosophy, that the garlands of conquerors and the dung of victims at the Olympian games, when thrown into the Alpheus, re-appeared at Syra-

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'cause in the fountain of Arethusa, it is impossible to forbear smiling at the philosophy of antiquity. The origin of the fable is difficult to be accounted for; perhaps it may be referred to the lively genius and imagination which distinguished the Greeks, joined to that natural attachment of the mind to whatever in a foreign country recalls to its recollection the beauties of our native land. At Pisa in Arcadia, was a beautiful spring from which two streams issued, called Alpheus and Arethusa; the Ortygian colonists observing a submarine stream in the island, for that of Arethusa is found to flow under the small harbour where it branches out in different directions, invented the fable, and applied the old names to this newly-discovered favourite: the story grew, and Arethusa increased in fame with the celebrity of Syracuse.'

In the national museum, Mr. H. was chiefly attracted by an exquisite torso of Venus, discovered in 1804. The goddess appears ascending from the bath, and with her left hand folding the drapery round her body: but the head and the right arm are broken. A dolphin and a *concha marina* are sculptured on the pedestal. The whole is six feet high, of the finest Parian marble; and the beauty of its design, together with its high finish, marks it as of the first order. The author thinks that extensive excavations would bring to light many treasures of antient art; for Syracuse abounded in baths, which were repositories of the choicest sculpture.— We regret that we cannot follow the intelligent traveller to the numerous antiquities of this celebrated spot; nor even offer an abridgement of his compendious history of Syracuse. After a series of mournful vicissitudes, the population of this memorable city has dwindled to 12,000: its streets are narrow and dirty, its nobles poor, and its commonalty ignorant, superstitious, and lazy: while the commerce which once filled "its marble port" with the vessels of Italy, Rhodes, and Carthage, is now carried on by a few *trabacole*. Nature has poured her bounties with a prodigal hand around Syracuse: but man is changed; his liberty is lost; and with its liberty, the genius and prosperity of a nation rises, sinks, and is extinguished.

Acradina is a quarter of the antient city called by Cicero, in his pleadings against Verres, "the second city." Vast and massive as its edifices were, scarcely a trace now remains to mark their site: but Mr. Hughes observed considerable vestiges of that broad street mentioned by the orator, which ran across the Acradina. He descended also into the celebrated catacombs of San Giovanni.

'Various and discordant have been the opinions of the learned respecting the origin and primary use of these extraordinary works; a subject dark as the obscure pages to which it has given birth!

birth! the very justing-place of antiquarian polemics, where the ground has been disputed inch by inch amongst veterans, who have ransacked the whole armoury of ancient literature for weapons to maintain the contest. These caverns then have been ascribed to the Syracusan Greeks, to the Romans, to the Greeks of the Lower Empire, to the Saracens, and to almost every people that have conquered Sicily: their design has been as variously turned into a general reservoir for the water of the aqueducts, a prison for the confinement of criminals, a den for the wild beasts of the amphitheatre, subterranean quarters for soldiers, and places of concealment for persecuted Christians. — I shall willingly subscribe to the opinion of those who refer the construction of this Necropolis to the Pagan Romans, for the purposes of a cemetery. I imagine also, that the only opinion which can stand its ground in opposition to this, is theirs who pronounce it to be either a cemetery or a *lautomia* of the Syracusan Greeks; for surely such extensive works as these must have been executed before the wealth and population of Syracuse was reduced by foreign invasions, or by long oppression; nor can I think that any person of common sense would ever trouble himself to controvert the chimerical ideas of the barracks, the reservoir, the prison, and the den of wild beasts; or for an instant suppose that a party of poor persecuted Christians, few in number as well as indigent in resources, could have excavated a large subterranean city in the very face of their persecutors, or could have concealed themselves in it, if they had effected so curious an undertaking. To return, therefore, to the pretensions of the ancient Greeks; over which this single circumstance casts a deep shadow of doubt in my mind, that I have never been able, after the most diligent search, to find the slightest allusion to these catacombs in any classical author, although the monuments of few cities have been more specifically detailed than those of Syracuse, and the work in question is of magnitude and importance enough to have secured it from neglect: to which, indeed, it may be replied, that they are, in fact, alluded to under the denomination either of *Lautomiæ* or *Sepulchres*. To this I answer, that if they are *lautomiæ*, they are an exception to all practice here or elsewhere, nor do I think that any people in their wits (and the Syracusans are said to have had sharp ones) would have cut their stone quarries into such figures and shapes, and that in two tiers or stories, as would, by the great increase of time and labour, have made every block of stone when brought to the light worth nearly its weight in silver; no, not for the double advantage of possessing the caverns afterwards as catacombs for the dead; for I wonder no one has ever urged this point, instead of asserting that their primary object was that of sepulture. In fact the Greeks did not require such spacious tombs; they generally burned the corpses of their deceased, and this custom is evident from all the detached sepulchres remaining at Syracuse and other Grecian cities, which are small in general, and contain niches for cinerary urns; neither did it suit the habits and manners of this lively people, to form such gloomy receptacles
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of such immeasurable dimensions, nor is there a single example of it in any Grecian city which was not a Roman colony, and if Syracuse had set an example so contrary to general usage, it would surely have been noticed in the pages of Cicero, Diodorus, or Plutarch. But on the contrary, the Romans delighted in such works, of which there exist specimens both in cities purely Italian, as at Rome, and in Grecian cities colonized by the Romans, as at Naples. — The ancient Syracusans were comparatively free even under the worst of their tyrants, and it would have been difficult to have procured their concurrence and assistance in so laborious an undertaking, neither necessary for their comfort or security, nor agreeable to their nature and customs; but the Romans were despotic masters, they had only to command, and the others must obey; they could force the whole population to labour without fee or reward; and that they did execute works of great magnitude in this very city, there is proof in the remains of a spacious amphitheatre, a species of building peculiarly Roman, unknown to the Greeks, and foreign to their taste. For these reasons, therefore, I would refer the origin of the catacombs to the Roman conquerors of Syracuse, in the period between its colonization by Augustus and the division of the empire.

For a plan of Syracuse and its several quarters of Acradina, Neapolis, and Tycha, the reader will consult Mr. Hughes's map; which seems to have been executed with great care and accuracy, and will give a better idea of the city than many pages of description. We must also refer to his plan of the celebrated antient fortress called Hexapylon, constructed by the noted Dionysius for the defence of Epipolæ; and of which the remains excited unqualified admiration from several officers of the Anglo-Sicilian army, as a specimen of military architecture. Mr. H. visited the celebrated *laetonia*, called by the Sicilians *il Paradiso*, from its delightful coolness. The most curious object in this subterraneous paradise is the grotto called the Ear of Dionysius. He properly ridicules the absurd tradition relative to this cavern; which is, however, to all appearance, constructed in the form of a human ear, and is endued with some remarkable properties of sound. With regard to Dionysius, he justly remarks that, although the character of that prince has been sufficiently blackened in the party-writings transmitted to posterity, this circumstance has been omitted in all of them; and he adds it, therefore, to the list of vulgar errors. Those readers, who are desirous of examining into the character of this celebrated man, may consult the able defence of him in the fifth volume of Mr. Mitford's *History of Greece*. — Determined to ascertain the probability of the fact, and observing a large hole in the rock, near the top of the entrance, Mr. H. and his companions consulted as to the best method of ascent.

' It was soon agreed to tie a rope, with a pulley attached, to a tree which appeared upon the edge of a precipice immediately above the cavern; over the pulley another strong rope was then thrown, by which each person of the party was drawn up to the aperture, seated astride upon a cross-stick: the height to which we were elevated was about seventy feet; the greatest difficulty arose in disengaging ourselves from the stick to creep into the hole: this however being effected, we were soon convinced of the improbability of the tradition: the chamber, as it is called, is an extremely small recess, which was quite filled by our party, and is nothing more than the termination or finish of a long circuitous channel, or mechanical contrivance, about six feet deep, which runs along the top of the whole cavern, and to which there does not appear the slightest trace of any external access before this hole was broken in the rock; neither is the whisper or voice of a person below heard so distinct as when the listener is below also, though the sound is full as loud: a small cannon which was fired off at the bottom made a report like that of thunder. Having descended without any accident, we made several experiments upon the power of this cavern in conveying and increasing sound. The whisper of a person at the farthest extremity is heard very distinctly by a listener at the entrance applying his ear to the wall, provided the whisperer speaks slowly and distinctly, and at the same time brings his mouth nearly in contact with the side of the grotto: a very low whisper is heard only as an indistinct murmur; the full voice is drowned in the confusion of the echoes. The voices of several persons speaking at the same time are as unintelligible as the cackling of geese. — The most agreeable effect produced was by the notes of a German flute, the finest by a bugle-horn; the sound in both instances being multiplied till it appeared almost like a band of music. I think, therefore, upon the whole, that the reader will agree with me in considering these experiments unfavourable to the common tradition, and that the prisoners must have been well tutored beforehand to have sustained their parts in the drama. — If I were to form an opinion upon the subject, I should incline to consider it as an experiment in acoustics by some ingenious mechanic of the school of Archimedes, who found this rock better suited to his purpose than that which was first attempted in the garden of the Capuchins.'

We cannot accompany the author to Catania, nor follow him in his ascent of Mount Etna: but his description of the magnificent prospect from its summit surpasses in beauty and fidelity every delineation, not excepting that of Brydone, with which we are acquainted. The party had accomplished their ascent about a quarter of an hour before sunrise.

' Anxious expectation more than doubled the time in which we waited for the appearance of the sun; but we felt none of those unpleasant sensations in a difficulty of respiration, which are said to arise from the tenuity of the atmosphere, and of which many
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travellers have complained: at this amazing altitude the mind seems more affected than the body; the spirit appears elevated by the change, and, dismissing those cares and passions which disturb its serenity below, rises from the contemplation of this sublime scenery to the adoration of its divine Architect.

At length faint streaks of light shooting athwart the horizon, which became brighter and brighter, announced the approach of the great luminary of day; and when he sprang up in splendid majesty, supported, as it were, on a throne of golden clouds, that fine scriptural image of the giant rejoicing to run his course flashed across my mind. As he ascended in the sky his rays glittered on the mountain-tops, and Sicily became gradually visible, expanded like a map beneath our eyes. This effect is most extraordinary; nearly all the mountains of the island may be descried, with cities that surmount their summits; more than half the coast, with its bays and indentations, and the promontories of Pelorus and Pachynum, may be traced, as well as the course of rivers from their springs to the sea, sparkling like silver bands which encircle the valleys and the plains. We were unable to distinguish Malta, though I do not on this account doubt the relation of others who profess to have done so: the Lipari isles were very much approximated to view by the refracting power of the atmosphere; as also was the Calabrian coast. The sides of Etna itself are covered with beautiful conical hills, from which ancient lavas have issued; their exhausted craters are now filled with verdant groves of the spreading chesnut, exhibiting the most sylvan scenes imaginable: on the plain below, these cones would be lofty mountains; here they appear but excrescences that serve to vary and to beautify the ground.'

Passing by the traveller's interesting visit to Messina, we accompany him to the island of Zante (Zacynthus), where he anchored on the 25th of September; and his description of which is the best that we recollect in any book of travels. The city of Zante spreads its arms like a crescent around its beautiful bay; and, in the softness and elegance of its scenery, it is surpassed by no other town in the Ionian sea. It has one good street, which follows the winding of the bay. The inhabitants are about 12,000, or two-fifths of the whole population of the island; of which the circumference is 70, the length 21, and the breadth 18 miles. It contains 64 villages and hamlets, many of which are charmingly disposed in the retreating folds of mountain-ridges, where groves of myrtle, vine, and olive, still intitle it to the appellation of "*Nemorosa Zacynthus*." Its wine is justly celebrated through Greece, and its oil is delicious:—but the chief article of exportation consists of its currants, of which 80,000 cwt. are annually sent to England, Holland, Sweden, and Germany.

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Owing to the terrible incursions of barbarians in the middle ages, scarcely any antiquities have been discovered in the island. The supposed tomb of Cicero, first observed in 1544, Mr. Hughes justly treats as spurious; and indeed, if it were not opposed by so many probabilities, the form of the letters in the inscription would be a conclusive refutation of the hypothesis. Had Zacynthus been the place of his interment, it is not to be supposed that it would so long have remained a secret; since the incident of his death, says Middleton, continued fresh in the minds of the Romans for many ages, and was delivered down to posterity as one of the most affecting events of their history: so that the spot on which it happened seems to have been visited by travellers with a species of religious veneration. — We hail with pleasing omens the establishment of a free press at Zante, — one of the most unequivocal of the various blessings which British protection imparted to the island; and we are told that the *Ionian Ephemeris*, or *Zante Gazette*, embracing both literary and political topics, had already obtained an extensive circulation. We cordially agree with the spirit and principles of the author's remark on this interesting subject:

‘With regard to the Ionian republic itself, we may augur the happiest consequences, if the plan of amelioration advances step by step; and that in time it may extend to that unfortunate race, occupants of the soil, if not legitimate descendants of those heroes whose very names shed a blaze of glory over the land, which contains their ashes. There never was a people that had so strong a claim to the sympathy of the world, as the modern Greeks.’

With these reflections, our traveller crosses the Ionian waves to the shores of the antient Peloponnesus. For the reasons already stated, we cannot suffer him to detain us in *Grecia propria*, every spot of which has already been so amply elucidated by Clarke and Dodwell: but strict justice urges us to remark that he is not inferior in accurate description, ingenuity of hypothesis, and critical learning, to either of those travellers; while in feeling and sentiment, and in a lively sensibility to the moral and physical charms which strew the path as it were of the classical pilgrim in that country, we think that he far surpasses them. We cannot abstain from quoting his remarks on the delightful vicinity of the Cephissus. Our readers are probably aware that Colonus, the birth-place of Sophocles, and the scene of that most beautiful drama in which the blind and unhappy Œdipus, guided by his daughter, seats himself as an humble suppliant to the humane Athenians, is on the banks of that classic stream; and those who admire the style and manner of the French Anacharsis will not be displeased

pleased at the raptures which Mr. H. felt in visiting this charming spot.

After searching in vain for the monument of Plato, we arrived at the banks of the Cephissus, the ancient rival of Ilissus, and its superior in point of utility, flowing through the rich and fertile plains which it still adorns with verdure, fruits, and flowers. A scene more delightful can scarcely be conceived than the gardens on its banks which extend from the site of the academy up to the very hills of Colonus. All the images in that exquisite Chorus of Sophocles, where he dilates with so much rapture upon the beauties of his native place, may still be verified. The crocus, the narcissus, and a thousand flowers still mingle their various dyes and impregnate the atmosphere with odours: the descendants of those ancient olives upon which the eye of Morian Jupiter was fixed in vigilant care, still spread their broad arms and form a shade impervious to the sun: in the opening of the year the whole grove is vocal with the melody of the nightingale, and at its close the purple clusters, the glory of Bacchus, hang around the trellis-work with which the numerous cottages and villas are adorned. Oranges, apricots, peaches, and figs, but especially the latter, are produced here of the most superior flavour; and at the time I wandered through this delightful region, it was glittering with golden quinces weighing the branches down to the ground, and beautifully contrasted with the deep scarlet of the pomegranates which had burst their confining rind: nor can any thing be more charming than the views which continually present themselves to the eye through vistas of dark foliage: on one hand the temple-crowned Acropolis, Hymettes, Anchesmus, and Pentelicus — on the other the fine wavy outlines of Corydalus, Ægaleos, and Parnes:

Dives et Ægaleos nemorum Parnesque benignus
Vitibus.

This terrestrial paradise owes its beauty and fertility to the Cephissus, from whose perennial fountains it is irrigated, and over whose innumerable rills those soft breezes blow, which, according to the ancient muse, were wafted by the Cytherean queen herself:

Καλλιάνη δ' ἐπὶ Κηφισῶ ῥοαίῃς
τὰν Κύπρην κληίζουσιν αἶφῃ
—σάμεναι χώραν καταπνέυσσαι
μετρίας ἀνέμων
ἰδυπνότης αὔρας*

Eurip. Med. 835.

But let the incautious stranger beware: death hovers in the balmy breeze, and the smiling atmosphere is pregnant with destruction: the malaria, that pest of southern Europe, lurks amidst these delicious retreats; and if one slept but for a night within the precincts of the academy, that sleep might be his last. Thus it was of old: the constitution of Plato suffered severely from the effects of the atmosphere where he had planted his school: to the remonstrances of his physicians and friends the philosopher replied, that the health of his soul would be improved by the mortification of his

his body: a speech unworthy of his exalted mind, and one which sunk him to the level of a cenobite or an ascetic.

The course of the Cephissus brought us to some picturesque mills in the vicinity of Colonos, where the ground is extremely rich and fertile, well watered by springs and fountains, according to the description of that poet who not only knew how to touch the chords of sympathy in the human heart, but could transcribe into his verses the brilliant scenery of his native country, glowing as under its own resplendent sun.

[To be continued.]

ART. II. *Mr. Cromwell's Memoirs of the Protector, Oliver Cromwell.*

[Art. concluded from page 16.]

As civil contention grew hotter, the republicans gained a considerable accession of strength: for in the month of October, 1644, the Commons proposed to the Lords to melt down the King's magazine of plate in the Tower; and, though the proposition was much combated by the Upper House, it was carried in the affirmative. Nevertheless, a sort of delicacy was still affected whenever the King was mentioned; and Cromwell, says Mrs. Macaulay, (vol. iv. p. 159. 8vo.) though void of those talents which command the opinions of popular assemblies, yet by the busy zeal of his nature, the seeming sincerity of his character, the vehemence with which he pursued the popular cause, and the intrepidity of his conduct, became an useful instrument in the hands of the republican faction. The Generals of the army, imitating the style of their principals, the Parliament, even when they led on their men to hostile acts against majesty, talked of the sacredness of the King's power and person, and puzzled the honest soldier with the senseless contradiction: but the more ingenuous Cromwell censured the inconsistent delicacy of the Presbyterians; publicly affirmed that tenderness was so far from being due to the King's person, that, as the prime author of the calamities of the times, he ought to be one of the prime sufferers; and declared that *he* should have less scruple in attacking him in the field than any other man. When, also, others insinuated merely that the officers of the army had shewn remissness and negligence, Cromwell went boldly to the House; charged the military commanders with having purposely spun out the war; and asserted that, for their own honour and dignity, the Commons ought to new-model their army, and purge themselves from the reproaches under which they lay, by a self-denying ordinance which should exclude all its members from civil or military

military posts. The unexpected bold truths, says Mrs. Macaulay, contained in this speech, so astonished the guilty party, that it produced a more sudden and general acquiescence than the utmost powers of rhetoric.

We may thus fairly account for the popularity of Cromwell among the republicans; and his services were found so great in the army, that probably no suspicion was at first entertained of his sincerity, even when, in the short space of a few weeks, he became the first exception to the self-denying ordinance which he had himself so strenuously enforced. After many objections, and several fruitless conferences with the Lords, this ordinance, declaring the members of either House to be discharged at the end of forty days from all offices and command, civil and military, passed on the 3d of April, 1645. The Earls of Essex, Warwick, Manchester, Denbigh, and many others, then resigned their commands, and the new-modelled army was intrusted to Sir Thomas Fairfax. Cromwell ought to have tendered his resignation with the other members: but he was sent with a body of horse to relieve Taunton, then besieged by the royalist army. His absence from the House being noticed, orders were dispatched for his attendance, and the new General was directed to employ some other officer on that duty; but Fairfax, over whom most of the contemporary historians agree that Cromwell had the greatest influence, sent a letter to Parliament, expatiating on the services of the Lieutenant-General, and requesting that an exception should be made in his favour for the good of the service. This was immediately done; and Cromwell was the only person who kept his seat in Parliament, together with his command in the army: which would have been a very honourable distinction to him, says Rapin, were there not room to suspect that it was owing to his own intrigues.*

The present author has introduced a long and very minute account of the occasion and origin of this ordinance, and has succeeded entirely to our satisfaction in refuting Lord Clarendon's misrepresentation; which was followed implicitly by Hume, and which derived its consequence only from becoming the ground of a charge of religious hypocrisy, in this instance at least not merited. We have no doubt that Cromwell was influenced by very honest and patriotic feelings,

* Rapin states that he was the *only* person: but Whitelock says that Sir William Brereton, Sir Thomas Middleton, and Sir John Rich, members of the House of Commons, were ordered to continue in their commands forty days longer, notwithstanding the ordinance.

when he urged the measure in the Commons so forcibly, so heartily, and so successfully; for his ambition was not yet fully blown: but it seems to our view not unlikely that the bud was burst on this very occasion. If he had not the ascendancy over Fairfax which is usually ascribed to him, but which Mr. Cromwell discredits, he must have been the more flattered by Fairfax's solicitation to Parliament for an exception in his favour; and the battle of Naseby, which was on the eve of being fought at this time, while it justified the discrimination of the Commander-in-chief, could not fail to impress on Cromwell's mind his own importance. The author reasons very fairly about this ordinance. Had no suspension of it been made in favour of any particular officers, no suspicion of sinister views in the promoters of it could have arisen; and, he observes, whether the object really was to displace the actual commanders for the purpose of introducing those of their own party, we cannot now know with certainty: but 'the suspension of its operation in favour of Cromwell, and a few others, certainly affords grounds for such a suspicion.'

A long and really somewhat superfluous defence of Cromwell is undertaken, for his supposed concern in the removal of the King from Holmby House by Cornet Joyce. It is very clear that he knew nothing about this matter till it was over; and, if he had, he would have been fully justified in a measure which attaches no criminality to any of the parties concerned in it. As Cromwell, however, positively denied that he was privy to it, it might become necessary for his biographer to rebut Lord Clarendon's impeachment of his veracity. A very minute narrative is likewise given from Mr. Baron Maseres's publication of tracts, of the negotiations between Charles I., Sir John Berkeley, Cromwell, Ireton, and other principal officers of the Parliament army, for the restoration of the King; of his escape from Hampton Court; and of the subsequent proceedings during the treaty of Newport. The paper was written by Sir John Berkeley; and, says the present author,

'It is conceived that a doubt cannot remain in the minds of unprejudiced readers of this memorial, of Cromwell's sincerity, and honest and anxious exertions, to bring to a successful termination this negotiation for the restoration of the King, and that, upon much more moderate terms than those offered by the presbyterian party, particularly in respect of the church, which he appears to have left untouched. This forbearance was agreeable to their moderate and tolerant principles as independents. The other propositions are not stated; but the King appears to have objected to only two, besides the above respecting the church, and they all probably

probably might have been got over, or reasonably settled by temperate management. But the King appears to have ruined all by his violent and indiscreet conduct towards the presenters of these propositions, and by his tampering with the different parties, and confiding in none of them. These circumstances and the threats of the agitators were evidently the causes of Cromwell's and the other principal officers' desertion of the King, and joining the army in their subsequent proceeding to his trial.

The following observations are made on Colonel Pride's exclusion of certain members from the House, exculpatory of Cromwell's concern in it:

'The truth appears to be, that the agitators, who were the republican party in the army, had become too powerful for their general and the other principal officers; and, being determined upon a republican form of government, had intimidated Cromwell, and the other officers who were friendly to the King's return upon proper terms, from further treaty with him: this appears from the preceding extracts from the several fore-mentioned writers. This republican party were in like manner determined to prevent all renewal of treaty with the King; they were also determined upon bringing the King to a trial. To accomplish these, their designs, they adopt the measure of what they term, purging the House of Commons, meaning the exclusion of those members from sitting therein, whom they knew to be favourable to a continuance or renewal of the treaty of Newport, and unfavourable to the purposed measure of bringing the King to a trial. With these views, they probably hastened the coming of the part of the army with Fairfax, and, with it's assistance, this exclusion of the obnoxious members, during the absence of Cromwell, lest he should, by his presence, prevent or impede their designs; and overawed the general (Fairfax) and his council of officers, into the sanction of their proceedings. *Thus the whole was accomplished before Cromwell's arrival, and resuming his seat in the House:* and this accords with and confirms the truth of his (Cromwell's) declaration of his ignorance of these designs, and acquits him of the foul charge of the deliberate falsehood with which his enemies wish to fix him.'

Fairfax was certainly aware of this exclusion, which happened on the 6th of December, 1648; and the way was evidently cleared for it by the remonstrance of the army, dated November 18, 1648, signed by Rusworth, as secretary, by appointment of the General himself. The object of this remonstrance was to induce Parliament to send no more addresses to the King, but to ensure his safe custody and his trial, and to institute for the future an elective monarchy. With deference to the biographer, however, we think it is not quite clear that Cromwell was absent on the 6th. He sat in the House on the 7th, when he received thanks for his great

services: but he came to London *on the day before*; and Whitelock states that he lay in one of the King's rich beds at Whitehall on that night. Rapin says, "On the sixth and seventh of December this year, the Independents entirely expelled the Presbyterians," &c.; and "*on December the seventh*, the Commons, as they were repairing to their house, found the door within and without guarded by soldiers who hindered many from going in." It may be, perhaps, as Burnet says, that, while Fairfax was determined to bring the King to trial, Cromwell was in some suspense about it, and Ireton, Cromwell's son-in-law, was the man who urged the measure.

When it was decided that all negotiation with the King should cease, many secret consults, according to Clarendon, were held, to determine what they should do with him. Some wished to depose him; others, to deprive him of life by poison, as making the least noise, or by assassination; and a third sort, the Republicans, proposed that he should be brought to a public trial as a malefactor. It is not without surprise that we find the present author stating 'that, *in justice to Cromwell*, it ought to be particularly noticed that he is not here (in Clarendon's account) named as having had any concern in these deliberations, or in this final resolution of bringing the King to trial.' He surely does not mean to say that Cromwell was ignorant of these "many secret consults;" or that he was indifferent to the issue of them; or that he had no preference as to which of the three measures was put in execution; or that he was hostile to all three, but had not courage to avow his hostility, and that he actually signed the death-warrant with his own hand at the time that he objected to the trial and to the tribunal under whose sentence the King was executed? We are not now to discuss the question of right or wrong, as to the execution of Charles*: but we do not see why the biographer of Cromwell deemed it a duty to *exculpate* his ancestor from the guilt of participation in any of the preliminary measures. Let it be granted that Cromwell was sincere in the negotiation for the King's restoration, on moderate terms, and in favouring his escape from Hampton-Court, and placing him in a state of personal freedom to quit the country; let it also be granted that with him the measure of bringing the King to trial did not originate, but that he reluctantly consented to it; still he did consent to it, he did

* Mr. Fox has performed this in a manner so masterly, uniting so much candour with so much courage, that we cannot do better than refer to his observations. See his *Life of James II.*, p. 13, &c.
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sit as one of his judges, and he did sign the warrant of execution. He is therefore more deeply criminated on the supposition of his absence from these preliminary "consults," or of his being a silent and inefficient auditor at them, than on the supposition of his presence and advice.

In an historical work of this magnitude, embracing so long a period of time, and a rapid succession of the most interesting political events that ever occurred in this country, it is not very likely that the author should be fortunate enough to secure an entire concurrence of opinion from all his readers. In addition to those points in the character and conduct of Cromwell, respecting which we have expressed our disapprobation, and our disagreement with his biographer, we could certainly fix on many others. Above all, perhaps, we should express our entire difference of opinion with him as to the character of the Long Parliament, and the violent dissolution of it by a body of musketeers. Even in the most peaceful times, we must always expect a disagreement among men respecting the wisdom of the measures pursued by the existing government: but, before the armies were disbanded who had been engaged in a civil war, and before time had elapsed for the exasperation and animosity of parties to subside, this disagreement must be more strongly felt and more sharply expressed. The Long Parliament was not without its defenders as well as its opponents; and, to justify its forcible dissolution, Mr. Cromwell takes his station with the latter. Yet we should contend that England never stood on loftier ground, particularly with foreign countries, than under that Parliament. Even Clarendon bears testimony to its high character abroad; and Guthrie, Heath, Trenchard, Ludlow, and Macaulay, the last of whom repeats their eulogies, concur in celebrating the wisdom, justice, and magnanimity of this assembly. Cromwell dreaded the increasing influence of the republican party, and was determined to destroy the republic itself: a purpose which his intrigues with the army enabled him to accomplish. We dissent, therefore, from Mr. Cromwell's justification of the dissolution of the Long Parliament: but we must cheerfully do him the justice to say that on this, as on all controverted points, he gives the most copious testimonies of adverse as well as friendly writers. His work is a defence of the Protector's private and public life, strenuously and indefatigably laboured: yet it has the rare merit of candour and impartiality, even when the writer is employed in exposing the want of those valuable qualities in such writers as Clarendon, Bates, Harris, and others who received and circulated every slander against his ancestor, however fraught with falsehood and absurdity.

One feature in Cromwell's character cannot be too highly eulogized, and we entirely accord with the justice of the following remarks :

‘ Cromwell's settled disapprobation of religious persecution adds no inconsiderable proof of the extraordinary greatness and comprehensiveness of his mind and understanding. He appears to have early and forcibly seen and adopted the great principle of the right of private judgment in matters of religion, contrary to, it is conceived may be said, the universal, opposite principle and practice of those times : none of the religious sects and parties of those days had an idea of toleration ; their contest was for power, which should be uppermost and rule the rest, without an apprehension of the justice of allowing their opponents their right of judging for themselves in a matter so highly important to their present and future interests ; each sect had its uniformity act, and its consequent persecuting principle, which they enforced with the most rigid severity. This principle Cromwell opposed with all his power ; and there is not an instance, in his whole history, of his voluntary disturbance of merely religious opinions. .

‘ Hence, from this principle of disapprobation of religious persecution, would naturally arise his determination to interpose in behalf of the oppressed Vaudois. Neal observes, that the Protector's zeal for the reformed religion made him the refuge of persecuted Protestants in all parts of the world.’

It was in the year 1654 that the Duke of Savoy confirmed to his Protestant subjects, the Piedmontese, all their religious and civil privileges : but, in gross violation of the articles which he had himself proposed and ratified, these poor people were in the very next year (January 25. 1655) directed to quit their estates and property within three days of the publication of the edict, and to be transported, together with their families, to other places, at the pleasure of the Duke, on pain of death and confiscation of houses and goods, if they did not make it appear within twenty days that they had become Catholics. After a fruitless solicitation for mercy to this sovereign monster of the valleys, these persecuted Protestants quitted their houses and goods, and retired with their wives and children, young and old, healthy and sick, lame, blind, and infirm, through rain, and snow, and ice ! In the following April, a large army entered their devoted territories, and pillaged and laid waste their country. Those who remained, and refused to be converted, together with their wives and children, suffered a most barbarous massacre ; and the rest fled into the mountains, whence they sent agents into England to Cromwell for relief. Now was he truly a guardian angel and “ Protector ;” he instantly commanded a general fast, and promoted a national contri-

contribution, by which nearly forty thousand pounds were collected; he gave two thousand pounds for his own share; and, which was more, he concerned himself in the difficult duty of seeing that it was faithfully and judiciously applied. Entirely in consequence of his prompt exertions, the persecution was suspended, the Duke recalled his army, and the surviving inhabitants of the Piedmontese valleys were re-instated in their cottages, and the peaceful exercise of their religion. On this glorious occasion for the exercise of his power and beneficence, Cromwell stood in the proudest attitude of command. He sent to Mazarin, desiring him to put a stop to the persecution, for he knew well that the French court had the Duke in its power, and could restrain him if it pleased; adding that, if it did not, he must presently break with it. Mazarin promised to do good offices, though it was impossible for him to answer for the effects which they might have. This did not satisfy Cromwell; and the Duke was at last compelled by Mazarin, through Cromwell's threat, to arrest his fury. Relative to this business we have several state-letters, written by Milton, who threw his whole heart and soul into it. He also wrote a "Sonnet on the Massacre at Piedmont;" and in the course of a long historical article we may relieve our readers and ourselves by transcribing it for their perusal. When somebody remarked to Dr. Johnson that the author of "Paradise Lost" could not write a good sonnet: "No," said Johnson; "nature endowed Milton with a mighty genius; he was born to hew a colossal figure from the rock, and not to carve faces upon cherry-stones." Yet, when Milton's feelings were roused, he could breathe even into a sonnet the inspiration of his muse:

"On the late Massacre in Piedmont."

"Avenge, O Lord! thy slaughtered saints, whose bones
Lie scattered on the Alpine mountains cold;
Even them who kept thy truth so pure of old
When all our fathers worshipt stocks and stones,
Forget not! In thy book record their groans
Who were thy sheep, and in their ancient fold
Slain by the bloody Piedmontese, that rolled
Mother with infant down the rocks. Their moans
The vales redoubled to the hills, and they
To Heaven! Their martyred blood and ashes sow
O'er all th' Italian fields, where still doth sway
The Triple Tyrant; that from these may grow
A hundred fold, who having learnt thy way
Early may fly the Babylonian woe."

Cromwell sent over to Geneva Sir William Morland, as commissioner-extraordinary for the affairs of the valleys of
K 3 Piedmont;

Piedmont; who collected with great pains and industry all the particulars of this religious butchery, and published an account of it in folio, with numerous cuts. One of the prints records a circumstance introduced by Milton in the above sonnet, and explains his allusion. Morland relates that "a mother was hurled down a mighty rock, with a little infant in her arms; and three days after, was found dead with the little child alive, but fast clasped between the arms of the dead mother, which were cold and stiffe, insomuch that those who found them had much ado to get the young childe out."

The same high and noble spirit was manifested by Cromwell in favour of the Huguenots at Nismes: who, on the apprehension of similar atrocities, sent a messenger over to him for protection. He ordered the messenger back to Paris *in an hour's time*, with a letter of peremptory instructions to his own ambassador. Mazarin again complained of these imperious proceedings: but Cromwell was not to be moved; and the Cardinal again yielded to the necessity imposed on him. These deeds have immortalized the memory of Cromwell in the valleys of Piedmont. Nismes and the south of France have witnessed a similar persecution of the Protestants in very late years, and found no Cromwell to frown or Mazarin to tremble.*

The Protector died at Hampton-Court, September 3. 1658, in the full possession of his faculties, and perfectly calm and composed; a tranquillity that, no doubt, says his biographer, was owing to his unconsciousness of those crimes with which his enemies have so heavily loaded him.

Mr. Cromwell enters into a very elaborate defence of his ancestor against the charges of enthusiasm and hypocrisy. 'Cromwell,' says he, 'was certainly a religious professor, and nothing has appeared to prove him other than a really religious character.' Where enthusiasm governs, no hypocrisy can be manifested: they may co-exist in the same person, but they cannot rise into activity or even co-exist on the same occasion. The question is, Did Cromwell, for political purposes, affect a greater degree of zeal and warmth in religion than he felt? He was frequent, and, it is to be hoped, fervent in prayer; having, we are told, the greatest assurance of its *immediate* efficacy; and certainly a heated imagination is no crime in itself: — but did he never affect, for political purposes also, a greater *indifference* in religious matters than he felt? If he did, the hypocrisy is equal in both cases. When he

* A detailed history of these recent atrocities has just been published, by Mr. Wilks, and will soon attract our notice.

takes God to witness, — thus sanctioning his affirmation by a solemn oath, — “that he would rather have lived under his wood-side, and kept a flock of sheep than undertaken such a government as this is,” we cannot believe that he spoke truth. It appears from Burnet that, when his godly friends were closeted with him, he would talk of the Deists as Heathens and Infidels, closing his conferences by a long prayer; and this, as it seems to us, for a political purpose, namely, to keep on good terms with them: with the same view as, when with the Deists, he would make a jest of his said godly friends, namely, to keep on terms with the Deists also. Rapin, as we have before said, *lets him off gently* for practising this sort of management on the several parties who were all and equally his enemies: but is it not hypocritical, is it not criminal, to make long prayers, like the Pharisees of old, for a pretence, whether a man aims by such means to devour widows’ houses, or to juggle a political party?

It is said that Cromwell maintained the honour of the English nation in all foreign countries; and that, though not a crowned head, his ambassadors had all the respect paid to them which our King’s ambassadors ever obtained. All Italy trembled at his name: his fleet scoured the Mediterranean; and the Turks, from fear of offending him, delivered up Hide, who retained the character of an ambassador for the King, and was brought over and executed for it. In the body-politic or in the body-natural, however, says Mrs. Macaulay, (whose history seems altogether to have escaped the attention of Mr. Cromwell,) the first decline of a robust constitution is not attended with any great degree of visible weakness. Civil contention, that nursery for martial prowess, had produced a warlike spirit in the English, which must give at least a temporary strength to any government:—those commanders, who had fought with a never-failing success under the banners of a commonwealth, could not forget the art of conquering after its extinction;—and England, though declining in its power from the first period of the usurpation, was more than a match for nations that were enervated by the effects of long established tyrannies. It was during the short period in which the power of England had been supported by the energy of the republican government which was overthrown by Cromwell, that it had become the terror of all Europe. To republics, says Mrs. Macaulay, the object of envy, to monarchs of hatred, and to both of fear, it was assiduously courted by all the states of Europe. London was full of ambassadors, endeavouring, for their respective superiors, to excuse past demerits, to renew former treaties, and to court stricter alliances.

alliances. It was under the republic, also, that the whole commerce of the Dutch was cut off in the Channel, and impeded in the Baltic; that their fisheries were totally suspended; and that above sixteen hundred of their ships were taken. To facilitate the establishment of his usurpation, Cromwell concluded a peace with the Dutch, which gave up all the splendid advantages and superiority that the nation had acquired by a successful and glorious war; and thus is he distinctly charged by the historian with having sacrificed to selfish considerations the power and interest of the country.

We cannot, however, pursue the subject farther; and we must take our leave of the present author, thanking him for the valuable addition which he has made to our historical literature.

The last chapter is devoted to the lives of Richard and Henry Cromwell, but we have not space for any discussion of them. Portraits are given of the Protector, his wife, and the sons.

ART. III. *Pomarium Britannicum*: an Historical and Botanical Account of Fruits, known in Great Britain, by Henry Phillips. 8vo. pp. 386. Boards. Allman. 1820.

WE are really somewhat puzzled how to deal with this *Pomarium Britannicum*; for it is not a display either of a British orchard or of a storehouse of British fruits. We might, indeed, overlook the pedantry and the ambiguity of the first title, though we cannot easily reconcile them to the sentiments of one who professes to write for the general reader, and who remonstrates against the Latin phraseology of botany and medicine. The second, or English title, ought to be an equivalent version of the first: but the epithet *botanical* is at variance with the scheme of a compilation destined 'more for general readers than for botanists or practical gardeners;' and which, certainly, is by no means incumbered with botanical detail. Then, again, what are we to understand by fruits *known* in Great Britain? The first line of the preface would induce us to suppose that nothing short of a history of fruits, in general, was contemplated by the writer; and the alphabetical array of a goodly and miscellaneous quantity of these gifts of nature, ranging from the acorn and the sloe to the peach and the pine-apple, appears to justify this extension of the theme. The same preface, however, at once disarms the severity of criticism; for it solicits 'the indulgence of the public to a work that has been finished under the most distressing family-affliction.' To 'hope that no
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part of it will be found objectionable' is to be more sanguine than the imperfect state of humanity can warrant: but Mr. Phillips, we are convinced, does not mean to insinuate that his performance is immaculate: on the contrary, he assures us that he shall feel proud to correct and improve it; and, with this view, he invites additional information. Yet, while we sympathize with individual suffering, we would, as counsel for the public, exhort authors to refrain from their calling when labouring under the pressure of distress; and from treating their 'liberal friends and *patronizers*' with a first edition of a work, before it has received some of the more obvious enlargements and corrections of which it is susceptible. The publication, however, even in its present form, is handsomely printed, and contains a considerable portion of instructive or entertaining facts and observations: but the tree, in some instances, supplants the fruit; the mention of the reputed medical virtues of particular species might have been suppressed, without rendering the author's discernment liable to be impeached; and a great accession of practical knowledge might have been derived from Martyn's *Miller's Dictionary*, the enlarged edition of Duhamel's *Treatise on Fruit Trees*, the writings of the Abbé Rozier, &c.

Having premised thus much, generally, we shall proceed to offer a few cursory remarks, suggested in the order of perusal, and accompanied by occasional extracts, the better to enable our readers to form their own estimate of these 'Pandects of Fruits.'

Under Acorn, we find many observations, more or less interesting, concerning the oak-tree, and now and then an anecdote rather out of place. Thus we are told of a periwig-maker in the town of Lewes, who 'had a sign painted on the front of his shop, representing the rebellious son of David hanging in the oak by the hair of his head, with this whimsical couplet below:

' O Absalom ! unhappy sprig,
Thou should'st have worn a periwig.'

What has this to do with acorns? — We are next introduced to Milo, of Crotona, and are reminded of his untimely fate in the forest of Dodona, &c. Even the sagacious supposition of Pliny, that the oaks of the Hercynian forest had preserved their stations from the creation of the world, is admitted without comment into Mr. Phillips's too credulous pages. The extraordinary dimensions of certain large oaks are, however, accurately reported.

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The author's history of the Apricot-tree, though differing from that which is commonly received, appears to be more conformable to fact; and its Arabian origin is attested by Legnier, while it is not found to grow spontaneously in Armenia. The correction of the botanical arrangement is, in this instance, of less consequence than the genealogy of the tree, since, without much violation, it may be classed with the Linnéan *Pravi*; and indeed the different varieties, at present cultivated in this country, are grafted on plum-stocks. Here, however, they are despatched with such provoking brevity, that even Dr. Cotier's pun, related by Madame Genlis, will hardly restore the disappointed inquirer to good humour. When this Esculapius, first physician to Louis XI., had escaped from the turmoils of a stormy court, he put over his door the sculptured figure of an apricot-tree, with this significant device; *A l'Abri Cotier*.

As an extension of the culture of the Almond-tree is recommended, something might have been said of the soil most suited to its healthy growth, and of the most approved modes of rearing it.

The history of the Apple furnishes Mr. Phillips with some popular and entertaining commentary: but a few of his statements are rather deficient in accuracy and precision. To pass over the marvellous *Polycarp-tree*, mentioned by Pliny, we should be glad to know whether, by the epithet *native*, the author means to assert that the Golden Pippin is indigenous to Sussex, and grows spontaneously and yields its fine-flavoured fruit in that county without the aid of grafting? With respect to the Ribston Pippin being a *native* of Ribston Park, we are informed, in the very next sentence, quoted from Hargrave, that the 'original tree was raised from a pippin brought from France.'—The expression 'animals of different species are found to engender a variety of kinds of animalculæ,' if intelligible, is at least very unphilosophical, as it would imply that the larger races of animals gave birth to the smaller.

While Mr. Phillips bestows the most respectful encomiums on the horticultural exertions of Mr. Andrew Knight, he thus ventures to impugn that gentleman's doctrine of the decaying energies of some of our finest varieties of apple:

'For some years past, it has been stated by several ingenious writers, that many of our best varieties of apples could no longer be cultivated with success; that by length of time they have become degenerated and worn out. Mr. Knight, the president of the Horticultural Society, seems to have been the first that gave birth to this idea. He says in his *Pomona Herefordiensis*, that
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those apples which have been long cultivated are on the decay. The Redstreak and the Golden Pippin can no longer be propagated with advantage. The fruit, like the parent-tree, is affected by the debilitated old age of the variety. Again he says, in his *Treatise on the Culture of the Apple and Pear*, p. 6., "the Moil, and its successive rival the Redstreak, with the Must and Golden Pippin, are in the last stage of decay, and the Stire and Foxwhelp are hastening rapidly after them."—"It is much to be regretted," says Speechly, "that this apparently visionary notion of the extinction of certain kinds of apples should have been promulgated by authors of respectability, since the mistake will, for a time at least, be productive of several ill consequences."

Having observed among the apples in Covent-Garden market, last year, a great quantity of the real Golden Pippin in a perfect state, I was induced to make particular inquiries respecting this fruit; and have received satisfactory accounts from all quarters, that these trees are fast recovering from a disease, or canker, which appears to have been brought on by a succession of unpropitious seasons; but that the summer of 1818, and the following year, have greatly improved them.

When I had decided to publish this History of Fruits, I waited on some gentlemen who are well known in all parts of the world for their practical knowledge in the cultivation of apples. Mr. Hugh Ronalds, jun. of Brentford, informed me that he had lately seen a tree of the Golden Pippin kind which had been planted against a wall in a south aspect, which was in a thriving condition, and the fruit in a perfect state. Mr. Ronalds, sen. assured me it was the true Golden Pippin, and that there is no fear of losing this variety.

Mr. Lee, of Hammersmith, who politely showed me a variety of 500 kinds of apple-trees, was decidedly of opinion that the apparent decay of some trees was owing to the unfavourable springs we have had for several years.

Mr. Knight, of the King's Road, Chelsea, has also favoured me with his opinion, which perfectly agrees with that of Mr. Ronalds and Mr. Lee. Mr. Knight added, that if this spring and summer should be as favourable as the two last seasons, he should be able to show me this and other old varieties of the apple-tree in as perfect a state as they have ever been known.

Mr. Knight, the ingenious president of the Horticultural Society, I conclude, had watched these trees during the unfavourable wet seasons we have had from the commencement of the present century, and finding the disease increase, he attributed it to the old age of the varieties; for, as the great friend of Pomona, his object evidently was to encourage the obtaining and cultivation of new kinds, to replace those which he apprehended would be lost to the country. I have made this digression, to prevent if possible our best apples from being stigmatised as a decaying fruit and unprofitable to the grafter, which would be the cause of their becoming scarce, and; in time, totally lost. I have not presumed to set my judgment in opposition to that of Mr. Knight, who is so

justly

justly celebrated for his attention to horticultural pursuits; but it behoves all who may write of this most valuable fruit, to recommend the graftings to be of the best kinds, and to throw out no hint that may cause our nurserymen to neglect its propagation.'

To prevent blights occasioned by minute insects and animals, it is recommended to rub the trunks of the trees with the leaves and young shoots of the elder. The canker of apple-trees seems to be chiefly attributable to the uncongenial nature of the soil, which may sometimes be obviated by a layer of bricks or flag-stones, on which the roots may extend, without coming in contact with the unfriendly stratum. — The condensed substance of the most approved precepts for the cultivation of the apple, and for the preparation of cider, would have formed a valuable addition to the miscellaneous information which is here so loosely heaped together.

Brookes's assertion that the leaves of the bramble, pounded, and applied to ring-worms and ulcers of the legs, *will heal them in a short time*, seems to have been hazarded at random. Few complaints are with more difficulty removed than ring-worm; and had such a simple application often proved successful, it could not have failed to be generally adopted: — but Mr. Phillips betrays a facility of belief in the reputed virtues of certain leaves and roots, to which the names of Pliny and of the elder herbalists can no longer give currency.

We find some pertinent remarks under the head of Chocolate: but the profits of an acre of the trees, when stated at 1000l. a year, are probably exaggerated; for the ants will sometimes devastate extensive plantations in the course of a single night; and the French colonists were accustomed to average the return at the rate of seven-pence a tree. — An acquaintance, on whose veracity the author could rely, informed him, 'that during the retreat of Napoleon's army from the north, he fortunately had a small quantity of little chocolate-cakes in his pocket, which preserved the life of himself and a friend for several days, when they could procure no other food whatever, and many of their brother-officers had perished for want.' Mr. P. adds, 'I have often been surprised that the making of the small chocolate-cakes for eating, should not have been attempted by some persons in London, when they are in such demand at Paris, where a celebrated manufacturer of these chocolate trifles assured me, that he had then, in 1816, received an order from a late high personage in England that would exceed 500l.'

Among other instances of large and old chesnut-trees, one at Fortworth in Gloucestershire is quoted, which measures 52 feet in circumference, and is reckoned to be 1100 years

old. Ducarel's argument in favour of this species being indigenous to Great Britain, although true, would not be conclusive; we mean, the quantity of its timber found in many old buildings in London; for it might have been imported; and, besides, the wood of the wainscot-oak, after a long series of years, acquires the grain and aspect of chesnut. — The common mode of gathering the fruit in heaps, and allowing them to remain on the spot till symptoms of incipient fermentation are manifest, is condemned by Parmentier; who recommends the gathering of the chesnuts in full sunshine, and exposing them to its influence for seven days on wicker-mats, which should be removed to the hottest part of the house in the evening. In consequence of this treatment, the fruit will retain its native relish, and its reproductive energy, though conveyed to a great distance, and even across seas.

Mr. Phillips's account of the Horse-chesnut, though short, is interesting and useful. He adverts, in particular, to Zanichelli's experiments, which seem to prove that the bark of this tree may be used as an adequate substitute for quinquina: but we believe that Zulatti found its exhibition to be attended with serious inconveniences. — The ingenious attempts of Beaumé and Parmentier to reduce the fruit to a sort of bread, in seasons of scarcity, might have been briefly stated.

Among the multiplied uses of the Cocoa-nut, the following is not the least deserving of notice:

• M. Le Goux de Flaix, an officer of engineers, and a member of the Asiatic Society of Calcutta, in his account of the cocoa-nut-tree, says it is a well-known fact, that the fibrous covering of the cocoa-nut is converted into good ropes, which are useful in navigation and for various purposes on shore. Cables for anchors made of this substance are much better than those made of hemp. They are exceedingly elastic, stretch without straining the vessel, and scarcely ever break, advantages which are not possessed by those of hemp. They are also lighter, and never rot in consequence of their being soaked with sea-water; nor do they exhale damp or miasmata, which are exceedingly hurtful to the crews of ships who sleep on the same deck where ropes are kept when ships are under sail. These ropes are also easier managed, and run better in the pulleys during nautical manœuvres.

In the history of the Coffee-tree, its translation to Martinico, by De Clieux, is not overlooked: but the anecdote of the Frenchman, who shared his short allowance of water with the plant confided to his care, is suppressed. Signor Telli's successful propagation of the coffee-tree, in the neighbourhood of Pisa, seems also to have escaped the author's knowledge; or surely he could not have failed to record it.

Most

Most of the properties and uses of the Date-tree and its fruit are enumerated; and the article Fig is copious, and somewhat amusing:

'At Oxford, in the botanic garden of the Regius Professor of Hebrew, is a fig-tree, which was brought from the East, and planted by Dr. Pocock in the year 1648. Of this tree, the following anecdote is related: Dr. Kennicott, the celebrated Hebrew scholar and compiler of the Polyglot Bible, was passionately fond of this fruit; and seeing a very fine fig on this tree that he wished to preserve, wrote on a label, "Dr. Kennicott's fig," which he tied to the fruit. An Oxonian wag, who had observed the transaction, watched the fruit daily, and when ripe, gathered it, and exchanged the label for one thus worded: "A fig for Dr. Kennicott."'

It is of more consequence, however, to mention that there is an orchard of fig-trees at Tarring, near Worthing, in Sussex, where the fruit grows on standard-trees, and ripens as well as in any part of Spain. It is, moreover, positively asserted that fresh-killed venison, or other animal food, suspended in a fig-tree during a single-night, becomes quite tender, and will soon afterward turn putrid.

The mode of cultivating the Filbert-tree, near Maidstone, which is briefly described, merits the attention of all concerned; large crops of the fruit being there successfully reared. A stony sandy loam seems to be the soil most congenial to the nature of these trees; and they are not suffered to grow above five or six feet high, being kept with a short stem, and very thin of wood, 'somewhat in the shape of a punch-bowl.'

The varieties, cultivation, and properties of the Gourd, might have been amply and satisfactorily detailed, had the author availed himself of the writings of Duchesne and Rozier; the former of whom raised his plants, for many years, chiefly with a view to ascertain their primitive species; and the latter, as an enlightened rural economist, has made them the subject of some excellent practical remarks.

One of the most inviting sections in the present work is that which treats on the Grape; for, besides other important and general information, it contains notices of the enormous dimensions to which the vine has been known to attain, an able pleading in favour of the reputation of our wine-merchants, and some observations on the practicability of establishing vineyards in the southern districts of our island.

Without staying to pay our respects to the old Mulberry-trees at Sion House, or to that of Dr. Crombie, near Greenwich Park, we would willingly join Mr. Phillips in his project for breeding Silk-worms in this country, if such a branch of industry

industry could be regularly and successfully prosecuted in our very variable climate. In treating of the mulberry-tree, economical writers, and even botanists, have not avoided much confusion relative to the alleged distinctions of species and varieties, several of which appear to be of a secondary and evanescent character; and we are still left in the dark as to the primitive type of the family. Most plants, in fact, that have been long subject to human culture and devices, lose the simplicity of their native physiognomy; and, in consequence of artificial soil and attendance, grafting, the neighbourhood of nearly allied species, or varieties, &c. they run into hybrid and graduating shades, which defy all attempts at strictly genealogical nomenclature. *Morus papyrifera*, Linn., is now ascertained to be a distinct genus, which Heritier terms *Broussonetia*, in honour of Broussonet, who brought it to France; in some parts of which it is now naturalized. That the white sort should furnish leaves of the proper quality for silkworms in Great Britain is by no means probable, since it is only in the warmer regions of France, and not in the northern parts of that country, that good silk is produced. In cold and moist countries, the leaves yield silk of an inferior description; and sudden transitions of temperature often prove fatal to the development of the eggs, and to the healthy state of the caterpillars.

It is a mistake to assert, *generally*, that the Olive yields fruit only once in two years, for this remark applies to a particular variety, while some produce an annual crop; and others, though every year covered with blossoms, are yet by no means fruitful. The sweet olives, in the south of Italy, are of a large size, and eaten annually in October, when pulled from the trees; or, if neglected by the inhabitants, they are greedily devoured by birds. Signor Battiloro describes a singular variety of olive-tree which yields four or five crops of fruit in the year, according to the temperature of the season; the olives being small and black, but affording delicious oil. The same intelligent observer has related the following anecdote, which, in the event of a second impression of his work, is much at Mr. Phillips's service:

“ Francesco Longuano, a person known in Italy by his proficiency in literature, happening, one day, to converse with me concerning the olive-tree, mentioned that he had read in the writings of an antient Greek author, whose name had escaped his recollection, that in the city of Coriolanum, near that of Venasso, there was an olive-tree which put forth blossoms and fruit every month, and that this Greek noticed the circumstance as a prodigy. That city, at present a village, called *Ciurnalo*, being at a little distance from

from my castle; I repaired to it, for the purpose of tracing, if possible, the remains of such a tree; and, fortunately, owing to the kind attention of the parson, I actually encountered five of them; and, on returning to the same spot in September, I found on them four different kinds of olives, and the recent blossoms of a fifth crop. The inhabitants call them *olive d'ogni mese*."

Our classical readers require not to be informed that Horace commemorates the olives and oil of the district of Venasso; and, perhaps, the varieties indicated by Signor Battiloro are the result of antient grafting and culture. It may not be too bold to conjecture that they are coeval with the Augustan age; as the olive-tree, we are assured, is a most determined *radical*, resuscitating from the smallest fibre of the root: insomuch that Delille culled a sprig of the identical tree that was planted by Minerva, 4000 years ago, on occasion of the foundation of Athens! Mr. Phillips, however, with the aid of Signor Lana, in his *Prodromus* to some *philosophical* discoveries, is at no loss to match the sempiternal olive: for he acquaints us 'that there is a way of producing oranges, without sowing or planting the trees, only by infusing the flowers in oil of almonds; for that this oil will, every year afterwards, at the proper season, produce both flowers and ripe oranges.'

The Pear might have furnished a few more interesting pages: but we remark an important practical hint with regard to the management of the tree. 'The blossoms are commonly produced from buds at the extremity of last year's shoots, and, as these are often cut off by the unskilful pruner, it prevents their producing fruit, and causes the boughs to send out new branches, which overfill the tree with wood. The summer is the best time to look over pear-trees, and to remove all superfluous and foreright shoots, which would too much shade the fruit. If this be carefully done, they will require but little pruning in the autumn.'—The wild tree has spines, and bears very harsh fruit: but both these symptoms of its savage state are removed by civilization and grafting. Few trees, under the guidance of man, have exhibited so many varieties; for the French gardeners, at the close of the seventeenth century, reckoned about 700 different sorts: of which, however, scarcely more than 50 were of superior quality, and worthy of being reared. Mr. Lee, of Hammersmith, musters 213 varieties in his own premises: but Mr. Phillips very properly recommends that only the best of the leading diversities should be selected, according as they are suited to the dessert, to baking, preserving, or to the making of perry.

The

The most grateful intelligence which we receive concerning the Pine-apple is, that we have now a prospect of that delicious fruit being conveyed, in a sound condition, from the Bermudas to the London market.

Of the Pomegranate it might have been mentioned that it grows spontaneously in Spain, Portugal, and Italy, but is much ameliorated by culture. This fruit should be gathered only when perfectly ripe; and, if suspended some days in the sun, and then laid up in a dry and airy situation, it will keep well, and may be conveyed to a distance without injury. Dr. Buchanan seems to have ascertained that the bark of the root is, in India, a specific for those who are afflicted with the tape-worm. The dose is eight ounces of the fresh root, in three pints of water; to be taken a glassfull at a time, with as little intermission as may be.

Raspberries are much cultivated in the neighbourhood of Isleworth and Brentford; from whence those are sent to London in swing-carts, which are used by the distillers for making raspberry brandy, raspberry vinegar, &c., as also those used by confectioners and pastry-cooks; but the raspberries which are intended for the table are brought by women on their heads: their load consists of a round, or basket, containing twelve gallons, of three pints to a gallon; and, although the distance is ten miles from Isleworth to Covent-Garden market, they regularly perform the journey in two hours; for which they are paid three shillings and sixpence. From Hammersmith these industrious women will take a load three times a-day, for which they receive eighteen-pence per load. These female fruit-porters come to the vicinity of London, for the season, from Wiltshire, Shropshire, and Wales: in their long journaies, they seldom walk at a less pace than five miles per hour.

Duchesne's excellent article on the Strawberry, in the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*, might have supplied some valuable topics. Notwithstanding the contrary assertion of Gerard, there can be no doubt that the white variety of the common strawberry is indigenous to this country, as it must have occurred to the observation of almost every botanist, being only an accidental deviation from the red. Mr. Knight's 400 varieties of this plant may be easily multiplied, as the dioecious sorts are constantly producing hybrid and cross breeds. Among the other salutary effects of a free exhibition of mountain-strawberries, might have been mentioned Linné's conviction, from experience, of its dispelling (or at least abating) the symptoms of those formidable tormentors, gout and stone.

The advantage of grafting the Walnut-tree seems to be now completely established by the uniform practice in Dauphiny, Anjou, the Lower Limousin, Perigord, and Swisserland, the

produce being thus increased about ten-fold; especially if the inserted variety blossoms after the frosts which sometimes occur in spring. We are surprized, therefore, that Rozier should have deemed the question problematical. — Some account of the American kinds of walnut, particularly of the *Juglans alba*, or Hickery, would have been acceptable; and the rather because Linné seems, under the *alba*, to have included five or six species, and because some of them are not easily affected by frost.

As to the question why the common Whortle-berry is not more frequently cultivated, we believe that the reason is the difficulty with which it is reared by artificial means; a difficulty, however, which may in some measure be obviated by putting it in heathy soil, and affording it shade and waterings, when it may be propagated by the seed. The violet colour obtained from the berries forms the subject of a Memoir in the Stockholm Transactions for 1746.

Mr. Phillips closes his labours with a short disquisition on the Lotus of the antients. Allusions to the tree so called are quoted from Homer, Ovid, Strabo, &c., and several passages respecting it are extracted from Pliny: but these do not greatly assist us in assigning its generic and specific designations in the language of modern botany. Mungo Park conjectured that it corresponds to a species of *Celtis*, or Nettle-tree; and it must, at any rate, be considered as quite distinct from the Egyptian *Lotus*, or *Nymphæa nelumbo*. It is probable that different trees and herbs were known by this name to the Greeks and Romans: but the one in question, the food of the *Lotophagi*, and commemorated in the Odyssey, seems nearly to coincide with *Rhamnus lotus*, Linn.

Two coloured plates are inserted, to illustrate the parts of the fructification of plants, chiefly with a reference to the Linnéan classes and orders; and an explanation of the technical terms used in the work is annexed.

ART. IV. *Italy and the Italians in the Nineteenth Century: or, Letters on the Civil, Political, and Moral State of that Country, written in 1818 and 1819. With an Appendix, containing Extracts from Modern Italian Literature. By a Foreign Officer in the British Service. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Pewtress and Co. 1821.*

AMID the fry of publications in the shape of continental tours, diaries, and journals, engendered by the peace, and brought forth by the curiosity, ambition, or necessities of travellers, and which have so often disgusted us with insipid narrative,

tive, stale reflections, and tawdry declamation, we willingly bear testimony to the mild and impartial spirit of inquiry, the dispassionate judgment, and the simplicity of style, which distinguish the unpretending volume before us. The writer has satisfied himself with recording from a mind temperate, thoughtful, and benevolent, the simple impression of interesting objects, without stimulating his sensibility into artificial raptures, or heating his imagination into a feverish and raving enthusiasm. Yet that this moderation does not proceed from a want of taste and feeling, many passages in his own composition, and the extracts with which he has enriched his appendix, will abundantly testify. We should, therefore, rather ascribe it to those habits of self-government, which our foreign brethren have learnt in the school of adversity; — an academy whence we are persuaded they derive that practical philosophy which they bring into the currency of daily life, and by means of which they outstrip so many of our countrymen in the race after ease and pleasure.

As a topic of general interest, we will present our readers with some of the author's observations on the Italian sex; and first with the following parallel, in which the impression produced on foreigners by our fair countrywomen is flatteringly attested:

‘ Italy and England are undoubtedly possessed of a greater share of female beauty than any other country in Europe. But the English and the Italian beauties, although equally interesting, are very different from one another. The former are unrivalled for their complexions, their bloom, the smoothness and mild expression of their features, their modest carriage, and the cleanliness of their persons and dress; these are qualities which strike every foreigner at his landing. On my first arrival in England, I was asked by a friend how I liked the English women, to which I replied that I thought them all handsome. This is the first impression they produce. There is something so calm, so chaste about them, that to a native of the south they appear almost more than terrestrial. They look

“ With eyes so pure, that from their ray
Dark vice would turn abash'd away :

* * * * *

Yet fill'd with all youth's sweet desires,
Mingling the meek and vestal fires
Of other worlds, with all the bliss
The fond weak tenderness of this.”

‘ The Italian beauties are of a different kind. Their features are more regular, more animated; their complexions bear the marks of a warmer sun, and their eyes seem to participate of its

fires; their carriage is graceful and noble; they have generally fine figures; they are not indeed angelic forms, but they are earthly Venuses. It has been supposed that the habitual view of those models of ideal beauty, the Greek statues, with which Italy abounds, may be an indirect cause conducing to the general beauty of the sex; be that as it may, I think the fine features and beautiful forms of the Italian fair have a great influence upon the minds of young artists, and this is perhaps one of the principal reasons why Italy has so long excelled in figure painters.

So much for outward form. Of the moral features we are told:

‘With respect to their character, the Italian women have several qualities in common with other southern females, such as those of Spain and Greece. Love is the predominating passion in Italy, almost every other is subservient to it; its influence and power and the different shapes in which it affects its votaries are shewn by the national poetry and songs, in which sentiments are frequently found that to a foreigner seem exaggerated, but which are perfectly natural to the Italians. Love with them is the business of life; it is the source of affection or hatred, generosity or revenge, of joy or despair, of life or death. Young and old submit to its sway, and no one is ashamed to confess himself its slave. *Fate l’amore? chi è la vostra innamorata?* are common questions in Italy, and ordinary topics of familiar conversation. What are the causes of this universal bias, especially among women? Nature, climate, and education.’

As to the first of these causes, we doubt its greater influence in Italy than in other countries; being of opinion that woman is by nature the same loving and confiding creature in all parts of the world. The other two causes we will not dispute, but they operate very unequally; the latter being, we think, alone adequate to the effect of both. It is not because our ladies have colder temperaments that we hear so little of the extravagance of their passions, or that love is with them less ‘the business of life’ than in the genial south: but because that tender usurping principle is early taught its due subordination in the moral scale, and powerfully curbed by that strength of reason and virtue which is derived from an enlightened and judicious education.

‘Devotion and love are often closely allied in an Italian woman. A religion full of mysteries; myriads of saints of both sexes, whose images are painted in the churches with all the magical art of Raphael, Guido, Correggio, and of other great masters; but above all, the idea of the Virgin, that mystical being, so pure, so modest, and yet so lovely and so exalted: all these spread over the Catholic worship a kind of poetical charm which softens the hearts of its fair followers, exalts their minds, and often connects senti-
ments

ments that the natives of colder climates, and the votaries of sects more austere, would think incompatible with one another. The character of Clementina in *Grandison* is founded on nature, and by no means rare amongst Italian females. — This exquisite sensibility of the Italian women is generally allied to a certain degree of the melancholy which is characteristic of the natives of the south, and which makes them sometimes feel the emptiness of the pleasures of this world, and wish for the purer and more exalted enjoyments which are promised to us in the next. This disposition of the mind, this void of the heart, is one of the sources by which nunneries are filled.

All this seems only to confirm our theory: for what, we will ask, is that exquisite sensibility, that void of the heart, which drives Italian women to the refuge of the cloister? It is the vacuity of ignorance, the eclipse of the understanding, and a stagnation of soul which emits a moral pestilence as fatal to happiness as the putrid exhalations of their *maremme* to the springs of corporeal life.

The author's account of Genoese marriages, which (we fear) savours but too strongly of general custom, forms a striking contrast to the love-matches of England; where the absence of every worldly good is often compensated by an affection as persevering as it is generous and exalted. No other cause needs be sought for the profligacy of Italian manners, than the infraction of the nuptial contract which almost naturally follows a marriage without love. As we have already said, woman is by nature a loving creature: if she loves not her husband, she will love another object; and the contagion of example, operating with the strength of her passions, must easily overpower a virtue but feebly supported by reason and religion.

We would recommend a curious notice of the state of the humbler arts at Naples, which introduces us to a more intimate acquaintance with the interior of that city than we gain from the splendid panoramic views of writers, who are attentive to the harmony of their periods rather than to the detail of the scene before them: but we extract in preference a brief description of the cathedral at Milan, as a better specimen of the writer's powers, and a subject more pleasing to readers of taste:

'The Duomo, or Cathedral of Milan, is one of the largest in Europe. It stands in the centre of the town, and its spire, which serves as a directing post to strangers, may be seen from every part of it; the exterior of this edifice is one of the most laboured extravagances of Gothic architecture. It is a mountain of marble cut for the most part into diminutive ornaments, obelisks, columns, and statues of all sizes. The front has been built at three different times and in three different styles; the Roman, the Gothic, and

and the modern are contrasted together. The interior of the church is grand and imposing, but not much ornamented, and kept very dirty. It is divided into five naves. I ascended to the top of the church; it is like a forest of marble, if I may be allowed the expression. There are more than a hundred spires or obelisks of various dimensions, with a dozen or two of small statues placed in niches round each obelisk, so that a great number of them are lost to the sight.

This author is very fond of Turin, and takes great pains to make his readers also like it: but so much concurrent testimony is in favour of the superior attractions of other places, that he must excuse us if we are rather obstinate in our indifference to charms which he has deemed worthy of a more elaborate delineation.

Genoa is also minutely and carefully described, but is not an alluring feature in the book. Corsica is sketched with a masterly hand. The strictures on the quarantine-laws are also just. The author's apology for the Catholics and for Monachism is spirited and eloquent; and his political reflections are conceived in a mild and liberal spirit. He seems cautiously to avoid the subject of antiquities; an omission on which we cannot blame, considering how we have been overwhelmed with such details from other sources.

We cannot be severe in noticing some grammatical inaccuracies, when we recollect that the writer is a foreigner; and we take our leave of the work with recommending it as an agreeable key to the kind of information of which it treats.

ART. V. *The Political State of the British Empire; containing a general View of the Domestic and Foreign Possessions of the Crown; the Laws, Commerce, Revenues, Offices, and other Establishments, Civil and Military.* By John Adolphus, Esq., Barrister at Law, F.S.A., and Author of "The History of England from the Accession of King George III. to the Peace of 1783." 4 Vols. 8vo. Nearly 700 pp. in each. 3l. Boards. Cadell.

MR. ADOLPHUS at one time ranked among the most active contributors to the literature of the age, but has proved a truant to the cause during a number of years; for we should have difficulty in pointing out any offspring of his pen, of later date than the historical sketch of the French Revolution, reported in our Number for March, 1804, and preceded by the History of George III. mentioned in the title-page of the work now under review. Mr. A. has not, however, passed this long interval in idleness, nor cast his "javelins in empty air."

air:" for he has opened to himself the way to more productive engagements, and has become known to the public as a pleader at the Middlesex Sessions, and other common-law courts. We learn that the multiplied occupations of such a profession, and which cannot be delegated, caused the present compilation to be postponed from year to year; and it unluckily happened that Mr. A. calculated, notwithstanding his experience in authorship, on speedily overcoming these delays, and therefore sent from time to time portions of his MS. to press; a step which, without preventing partial corrections in the shape of notes or additions, puts it out of the power of a writer, unless by a heavy pecuniary sacrifice, to recast his composition when the perusal of later authorities, or his own mature reflection, have suggested the expediency of considerable changes. Hence, in a great measure, have arisen the undigested character of the book as we now find it, the frequent deficiency in clearness which it betrays, and its still more frequent want of condensation. — A table of contents is prefixed to each volume, and a general index closes the whole: but so various are the materials of the work that, to obtain a distinct idea of them, it is necessary to analyze the heads of chapters, and to exhibit the result in a condensed form; thus:

Vol. I. — England and Wales. The Counties enumerated in alphabetical Order, with a short geographical Notice of each. — Government; the King; House of Peers; House of Commons: the Church; the Gentry, viz. Baronets, Knights, Esquires. Each of these heads occupies a considerable space.

Vol. II. — Cabinet Ministers, Ambassadors, and other Servants of the Public. Revenue; Custom, Excise, Miscellaneous Taxes: the Bank, the Mint, the Coins of the Realm. Navy, Dock-Yards, Victualling, Manning; Education of Officers; Provision for Seamen. Army; Recruiting; Barracks; Pay and Allowances; Education of Officers and Provision for retired Soldiers. Administration of Justice; Ecclesiastical Courts; Courts of Local or Special Jurisdiction; the great Courts, King's Bench, Common Pleas, Exchequer; Chancery; Inns of Courts; Counsellors; Circuits; Sheriffs; Witnesses. Criminal Law; Prisons; Assaults; Robbery; Monopoly; Libel; Punishments.

In the large mass of materials here collected, our attention was pointed to the department of the law, as the branch with which Mr. A. was most familiar; and in which a few extracts or rather abstracts from his book are likely to be attended with most benefit to our readers.

Common Pleas. — From the time of the Conquest, the sovereign had constantly a court in his hall, called thence *Aula Regia*, and composed of the officers of the palace, assisted by certain persons learned in the law, called the King's *Justiciarii*, or justices.

tices. This court varied its place of sitting in the palace, according as it transacted criminal, civil, or fiscal business, and had for its president the chief *justiciar* or justice of England. As it was bound to follow the King in all his removals, the distance was often very inconvenient to suitors; which led to the provision in the 11th chapter of *Magna Charta* that "the common pleas shall not follow our court, but shall be holden in some place certain." Westminster Hall soon became the place in question, and inns of Court were erected between it and London. Above half a century afterward, in the reign of Edward I., the chief repartitions of jurisdiction took place in our courts; the Exchequer being limited to the King's revenue, and the Common Pleas appropriated to the determination of causes between private subjects. Such has been uniformly its jurisdiction; and all actions for debt or damage, exceeding 40s., may originate here, or be removed hither by writ from inferior courts.

Court of King's Bench. — To this Court was allotted, in the reign of Edward I., all jurisdiction not appropriated to the Exchequer and Common Pleas, together with the sole cognizance of criminal causes and pleas of the crown; — that is, of all claims and misdemeanours in which the King is plaintiff on behalf of the public. It forms our highest court of common law; the Chief-justice and the *puisné* justices of it being by their office the conservators of the peace, the *custodes morum* of the kingdom, with a general power of applying a suitable punishment to every offence that may occur. This court keeps inferior jurisdictions within their proper bounds; superintends civil corporations; directs magistrates and others how to act where no specific remedy exists; and takes cognizance both of criminal and civil causes; — among others, of actions of trespass, forgery, and conspiracy; in short, of all which savour of a criminal nature, although the action is brought for a civil remedy. The determinations of all inferior courts of record, and even of the Common Pleas, may be removed by writ of error into the King's Bench.

Exchequer. — This court also is very antient, having been a part of the *Aula Regia* of the Conqueror. It is held in Westminster Hall before the Chief Baron and three *puisné* barons; and its specific object is to call to account the King's debtors by bills filed by the Attorney-General. It acquires, however, a far more general jurisdiction by the easy fiction of *quo minus* on the part of a plaintiff; viz. that, in consequence of his adversary withholding payment of his due, he, the plaintiff, is less able to discharge his debt to the King. This allegation being never disputed, the Court of Exchequer is in fact open

open to the public at large, and appeals lie from it to the House of Peers.

The Court of Exchequer-Chamber; — a tribunal quite distinct from the preceding, having no original jurisdiction, but acting as a high court of appeal. It is constituted not by a judge and jury, but by the twelve judges sitting collectively; viz. the justices of the King's Bench and Common Pleas, with the Barons of the Exchequer. Before this high chamber, the sittings of which are necessarily occasional and temporary, are brought writs of error to reverse judgments in certain suits originating in the King's Bench; and such difficult causes as the judges decline to decide in their separate courts. An appeal lies from it also to the House of Peers.

Chancery. — This court is of a two-fold character; the Chancellor possessing the power of deciding not only by equity but in certain cases by common law, a jurisdiction which forms, in fact, by much the more antient portion of his duty. It has, however, long fallen into disuse; very little being done on the common-law side of the court, except as an *officina justitiæ*; from which issue all original writs that pass under the great seal, all commissions of bankruptcy, lunacy, charitable uses, &c. In former ages, the writs relating to the business of individuals were kept in *hanaperio*, "in a hamper," and those relating to the crown, in *parva бага*; — whence the distinction of the "hanaper" and the "petty bag" office, which both belong to the common-law side of Chancery. The great business of Chancery, however, lies in its equity department, which did not for several centuries after the Conquest assume the form of an original court; the Chancellor having at first been, not a judge but the King's confidential secretary and chaplain, restricted, as far as law was regarded, to the correction of the errors and to supply the imperfections of decisions in other courts: — defects unavoidable on the part of judges who were obliged to pronounce sentence according to statute, whether right or wrong; and which it behoved the Chancellor to remedy in his capacity of minister to the sovereign. At last, towards the close of the fourteenth century, the equity-side of Chancery became a regular tribunal for determining causes beyond the competency of other courts; or more properly a court of conscience, which interposed a decision when other courts, from an adherence to antient rules, either did not decide or decided oppressively. This high office was, in those days of restricted education, long filled by dignitaries of the church; and it was not till the reign of Henry VIII. that it became intrusted to lawyers.

lawyers by profession, after which the proceedings of Chancery were digested into a more regular system.

Were we to attempt a comparison between France and England with regard to their civil institutions, a remarkable difference would appear in the mode of conducting law-business: for in England, during several centuries, it has undergone only a very gradual and partial change; while on the south side of the Channel it has been altogether new-modelled by the Revolution. The French of the present age know nothing of baronial, university, or even of ecclesiastical courts: but all cases come before the established civil tribunals, which, in every department of the kingdom, are on the same plan; beginning with a justice of the peace for the cognizance of petty questions, (below 40 shillings,) and proceeding at the next step to the tribunal *de première instance*, and finally to the *Cours Royales*, the decisions of which are definitive, except on the ground of form. Those courts, however, if less complicated, are much more in number than with us, there being not fewer than twenty-seven *Cours Royales* or courts of supreme jurisdiction in France; and if to their numbers we add those of the still more numerous *tribunaux de première instance*, the result is an aggregate of judges tenfold that of England, making every allowance for the difference of population. Nothing is more embarrassing to those who study the relative merits of the institutions of the two countries; and the causes of the difference are various, and require to be minutely stated. With us, the far greater part of law-business is transacted in London; where, from the dexterity of solicitors, of counsel, and, we may add, of judges, the proceedings are as much abridged as the forms of law will permit. The same remark is applicable to our circuit-business: but in France there are no circuits; and, as Paris transacts the judicial business of only seven departments, (less than one-tenth of the kingdom,) the rest is subject to all the delay of provincial management, the time of the solicitor, the counsel, and the judge, being much less precious than in the metropolis. It is farther liable to the delay caused by the intervention of clients, who, throughout almost all France, make a point of seeing their counsel personally, instead of trusting to the medium of a solicitor. Deeds and papers also may be multiplied with impunity in a country where law-stamps are of easy purchase; and the judges on the south side of the Channel, though well educated men and far from inefficient, are by no means given to over-exertion, their sittings rarely exceeding two or three hours in a day. The last, and perhaps the chief, cause of difference is to be sought in the proportion of business still trans-

transacted in England in courts not merely of local but of peculiar jurisdiction, many of which are little understood among ourselves: the principal are the following:

Ecclesiastical Courts.—In the early ages of Christianity, ecclesiastical questions were treated throughout Europe merely as civil causes, and were subject to the cognizance of the civil magistrates: but in process of time jurisdiction was granted to bishops respecting such questions as tithes, marriage, or testamentary dispositions; and the next step, in an æra when learning was banished from every class except the clergy, was to create for this privileged order a separate code, under the name of Canon-law. In England, the canon-law was not established till after the Conquest, when the ecclesiastical courts were separated from the civil, and the Saxon laws overborne by the Norman justiciaries. Since the Reformation, the authority of our ecclesiastical courts has considerably declined, and is restricted to questions regarding marriage, tithes, probate of wills, and others that are directly connected with the church.

The “Court of Arches” is a court of appeal belonging to the Archbishop of Canterbury, in which the “Dean of the Arches” receives and determines appeals from the sentences of inferior ecclesiastical courts within the province of Canterbury; as does the official principal of the Archbishop of York with regard to his less extensive jurisdiction. The “Court of Peculiars” is a branch of the Court of Arches; and the “Prerogative Court” takes cognizance, in the first instance, of wills, administrations, and probates. Each of these has only one judge; each is held in Doctors’ Commons; and from each an appeal may be made to the King in Chancery.

The Courts of Convocation were of quite a different character, being collective bodies formed either of the clergy in a diocese convoked by the Bishop, or of the clergy of a province convoked by the Archbishop. The latter constituted properly the “Convocation,” and, in the great province of Canterbury, were divided into an upper and a lower house; the former composed of the Archbishop and bishops, and the latter of the rest of the clergy. Their jurisdiction related chiefly to matters of heresy and schism: but, though not formally abrogated, these assemblies have long fallen into disuse.

Court of Admiralty.—This tribunal, which takes cognizance of all maritime causes, or matters arising on the high seas, consists of two divisions, one called the “Instance-court,” for deciding questions about contracts made at sea; while the other determines the right to maritime captures, and is termed

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the "Prize-court." They have, however, only one judge: before whom are brought appeals from our Vice-admiralty courts abroad, and from whom again an appeal lies to the privy-council.

Courts Palatine.—These exercise within their own precincts a jurisdiction as ample as that of the courts at Westminster for the kingdom at large. They are three in number, viz. Chester, Durham, and Lancaster. The most antient is Chester, the chamberlain of which administers law in his district in the same manner as the Chancellor of England in the kingdom at large. Chester has also a Chief-justice, for deciding actions similar to those that are pleaded in the King's Bench and Common Pleas; and three Welsh counties are comprized under the jurisdiction of these judges. The County Palatine of Durham extends to all places between the rivers Tyne and Tees, and has also its local court of chancery. The County Palatine of Lancaster, though merged in the crown, has its separate chamber for sealing writs, and which is quite distinct from the court of the duchy of Lancaster; a special jurisdiction exercised by the chancellor of the duchy, or his deputy, with regard to lands held of the King in right of the duchy of Lancaster. Some of these lands are altogether remote from the County Palatine of Lancaster, the most valuable lot of them being a district surrounded by the city of Westminster. The office of the duchy is in Somerset-place; and proceedings are held here in the same form as on the equity-side in the courts of Exchequer and Chancery.

Courts of the Universities.—The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge have sole jurisdiction in all civil actions in which a scholar or privileged person is one of the parties; a right granted in England as on the Continent, in order that the students might not be distracted from their pursuits by legal process from distant courts. It is exercised, as far as it relates to civil causes, in the Chancellor's court, before the Vice-chancellor and his deputy or assessor, who try the action according either to local custom or common law. Appeals may be made to delegates appointed by the University, and, in the last resort, to Judges appointed by the crown.

Cinque Ports.—There are several small courts within the Cinque Ports; each of those towns having a major and jurats, and the Lord-warden having a local jurisdiction distinct from that of the Admiralty.

Stannaries.—These courts are held in Devonshire and Cornwall, before the Lord-warden of the stannaries and his substitute; the tinmen having the privilege of suing and being sued only in their own courts, that they may not be drawn to a

distance from their business. An appeal lies to the privy-council of the Prince of Wales, as Duke of Cornwall, and thence to the King himself.

Among the other courts of limited jurisdiction may be specified Forest-courts, which owe their origin to the particular officers, laws, and privileges, peculiar to a forest, and unconnected with any other place or establishment. — The Commissioners of Sewers are subject to the controul of the court of King's Bench, and are authorized to overlook the repairs of walls, the cleansing of rivers, public streams, and other conduits. — Another establishment, no longer maintained, but interesting to all who know the magnitude of the branch of business in question, is the court for Policies of Insurance. The Chancellor is empowered by law to grant a standing commission to certain lawyers and merchants, any three of whom are authorized to determine all causes concerning policies of insurance in London; subject to an appeal to the court of Chancery. This law dates from the 13–14th of Charles II., and, being rather limited in its provisions, no such commission has for a long time been issued; insurance-causes coming generally before the courts in Westminster Hall, and a jury of merchants.

Such are the principal courts of local or rather peculiar jurisdiction which lessen the mass of business in our great law-courts, and serve to account for the remarkable disproportion of the latter to the courts of our continental neighbours. It is fit to add that the excess of number in France, so conspicuous in the case of judges and counsellors, applies in a less degree to attornies, solicitors, or notaries, the proportion of whom is nearly as great on our side of the Channel. We add the names of a few of our courts of old date, chiefly as matter of historical record, and as a proof of the anxiety of our ancestors to distribute the streams of justice throughout every manor and township in the kingdom.

Court of Pié-poudre. — This, the humblest of our courts of justice, derives its name from an old French term, *pied poudreux*, signifying a petty chapman, or pedlar, such as frequent fairs: the judge, if such he can be called, is the steward of the owner of the toll of the market, and his cognizance extends to commercial trespasses occurring in the market or fair held at the time, without any retrospect to preceding markets.

Court-Baron and Hundred-Court. — A Court-baron was incident to every manor in the kingdom, and was held by the steward within the manor, chiefly for determining controversies relating to the right of lands in it, or for pleas of personal action not exceeding 40s. A Hundred-court is merely a larger

larger Court-baron, being held for the inhabitants of a district called a Hundred, instead of a manor: but both have fallen into disuse with regard to the trial of actions, because proceedings may be removed by writ into the higher courts.

County-Court. — Courts of this kind are incident to the jurisdiction of a sheriff, and are empowered to entertain pleas of debts or damages below the value of 40s.: but they may hold pleas of higher actions by virtue of a special writ, authorizing the sheriff to "do the same justice in his county-court as might otherwise be done in Westminster." The judges are the freeholders of the county, the sheriff being merely a ministerial officer: but the functions of both in a judicial sense have fallen into disuse, actions being easily removeable into the higher courts. The sheriff's court is still, however, the place for proclaiming outlawries, and for making certain popular elections, as well of knights of the shire as of coroners, verderors, and other officers appointed in *pleno comitatu*; the sheriff's court having in former ages been the largest assemblage of freeholders, which public business brought together in a county.

Wales. — The courts of this principality, as at present constituted, date from the reign of Henry VIII. Wales, like England, has Courts-baron as well as Hundred and County courts: but all business of consequence is transacted at the sessions held twice in every year in each county by royal judges, before whom all actions real and personal are tried, in the same form and in as ample a manner as in the courts at Westminster. Wales has four circuits; the Chester; the North Wales; the South Wales; and the Brecon. Appeals lie, by writ of error, to the court of King's Bench.

We conclude this part of our subject with a notice of the chief courts in the metropolis, the names of which are very familiar to the public, but of which the respective powers are less generally understood.

Courts in London. — The Court of Aldermen possesses a large share of the executive power of the city; granting leases and other instruments that pass the city-seal; deciding contests relative to water-courses, lights, party-walls, &c.; and appointing, suspending, and, when necessary, punishing certain of the city-officers. The court of Common Council may be termed the City Legislature, being empowered to pass acts or bye-laws for its good government. It consists of the aldermen and deputies from the respective wards, who assemble in Guildhall, when called together by the Lord Mayor: they elect annually committees for letting the city-lands, transacting the

the affairs belonging to the Gresham benefactions, managing the property of the city in Ireland, &c.

The Mayor's Court. — This court, in which the Recorder of London is judge, is held daily, and takes cognizance of all actions, penal or non-penal, arising within the liberties of London. Its general business consists in actions of debt and trespass, appeals from inferior courts, foreign attachments, apprenticeships, &c.: a suit may be removed to a higher court, if the debt exceeds 5l. The pleadings are conducted by four appointed counsel, and before juries returned by the several city-wards. Four attornies also belong to this court, who exemplify, under the mayoralty-seal, affidavits of the execution of deeds, and other instruments. Matters of equity within London may be determined in this court on bill and answer, of which the Recorder is also judge.

The Sheriff's Court. — There are two sheriff's courts, each held twice in a week, for trial of debt, trespasses, attachment, sequestration, &c. The judges are the sheriffs, aided by the under-sheriffs, and by two barristers-at-law. For a debt exceeding 10l. an action may be moved into a higher court.

The Chamberlain's Court, — or rather office, is held in Guildhall by the City Chamberlain, who fills a place of great trust and emolument; receiving and paying all the money of the city, keeping all public securities, and accounting annually to the proper auditors. As a magistrate, he decides differences between masters and apprentices, enrolls apprentices, and admits persons duly qualified to the freedom of the city.

Court of Requests. — This very useful court is formed by two aldermen and four commoners, who sit twice in a week to hear all causes of debt not exceeding 40s., which they examine in a summary way by the oaths of the parties, or other witnesses; deciding these petty questions by a reference more to equity and conscience than to the letter of the law. This being a very economical mode of administering justice, several trading towns have obtained acts of parliament for appointing local courts on a similar plan.

In the latter half of Mr. Adolphus's extensive work, he treats of the system of education and the state of commerce in England; while, respecting the sister-kingdoms and our foreign possessions, he follows (on a less comprehensive scale) the plan adopted in his first and second volumes with regard to England. Our limits, however, admonish us to bring our report to a close, and merely afford space for an abstract of the contents.

Vol. III. — Universities. Oxford and its Colleges; Cambridge and its Colleges: the great Public Schools; the Royal and other Societies;

Societies; Printing and Copy-right. Trade; Shipping; Turkey Company, and other Mercantile Associations: Home-Trade; the Woollen, Cotton, and Hardware Manufactures; Roads and Bridges; List of Canals and Rail-ways. Insurance. London; its Population; its Magistrates; Docks; Public Buildings; Prisons; Theatres; Hospitals, and other Charities.

Vol. IV. — Scotland; its Counties in alphabetical Succession: Officers of the Crown; Peers; Mode of Parliamentary Elections: the Church; Administration of Justice; Universities and Public Libraries; Revenue; Trade; Edinburgh.

Ireland. — Ulster, Connaught, Leinster, Munster, are successively described. Officers of State, Peers; the Church; Archbishops and Bishops; Dublin University; Free Schools; Administration of Justice; Revenue; Trade, Canals, Roads; the Linen Manufacture: Dublin. — Isle of Man; Jersey; Guernsey; the Scilly Islands; Gibraltar, Malta, Heligoland.

India. — Historical Sketch of its Trade, and arrangements for governing it; Board of Controul; Directors of the Company of Bengal; Madras; Bombay; insular Possessions. — Africa, the Cape, St. Helena, the Isle of Bourbon. — America, Canada, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland; the West Indies; the Bahamas; Demerara, Essequibo, Berbice; New South Wales.

The abstracts given in our preceding pages, from Mr. A.'s long chapter on our courts of law, must not be communicated to our readers, without a notice that they are greatly condensed; and that it has cost us no small labour to bring within a limited compass the substance of what the author has scattered over a long succession of pages. The court of the Duchy of Lancaster, small and comparatively uninteresting as its jurisdiction is, has been allowed to occupy ten closely-printed pages; and the rest of the book is in a similar style of amplification, being evidently the work of a person accustomed more to speak than to write, and who is either unconscious of his exuberant effusions or unwilling to bestow the time and labour that are necessary for their correction. How many paragraphs might have been abridged, how many repetitions avoided, and obscure passages rendered clear, had Mr. Adolphus consented to re-cast his materials, and to convey his information in plain and concise language! At present, whoever wishes to make himself master of any of the various subjects, that are treated in these volumes, is necessitated to go through the tedious process of new modelling and arranging for himself. He will find the marks of haste and inattention even in the appendix of 'additions and corrections;' where the table of the population of Scotland, inserted as a correction, is itself very erroneous.

Though we cannot terminate our report with a very favourable testimony, it is no more than justice to add that Mr.
Adolphus

Adolphus has not had the vanity to swell the size of his book by open printing; both the page and the type being adapted to contain an extra share of matter, and implying that the author has no wish that the public should view his labours in any other light than as a compilation.

ART. VI. *Jerusalem Delivered*, Book the Fourth; from the Italian of Tasso; being the Specimen of an intended new Translation, in English Spenserian Verse; with a Prefatory Dissertation on existing Translations. By J. H. Wiffen, Author of "Aonian Hours," "Julia Alpinula," &c. 8vo. pp. 93. 5s. 6d. sewed. Warren. 1821.

IT is a strong proof of the zeal with which the interests of poetry are cultivated at the present day, that, within the space of two or three years after the appearance of a complete translation of the "*Jerusalem Delivered*," proposals are issued for the publication of a fresh version. Had Mr. Wiffen merely announced his intentions, however, we should have doubted the success of the measure: but, by presenting to us a fair specimen of his powers, he has enabled us to form a judgment of his claims to the attention and encouragement of the public. It is certainly a bold design to undertake the version of one of the noblest and most delightful poems of a land so eminently the seat of the Muses, and at a time when the poetical feelings, if not the taste, of our own country have been raised and refined by the earnest study not only of the purer models of past ages, but also by the contemplation of the works which the great living masters of the art have produced. The attempt, however, to furnish us with a translation of this splendid epic, that may be worthy both of the great original and of the poetical spirit of that nation into whose language it is transferred, is one in which, if it be executed so as in any degree to attract public favor, our national literature is mainly concerned; and we therefore feel it to be our duty, as early as possible, to offer our remarks on the qualifications of Mr. Wiffen to appear in the arena as the translator of Tasso: the specimen which he has given being represented as a fair criterion of the whole.†

The "*Jerusalem*" has always been a favourite poem, not only with the Italians but with the natives of less congenial climates. In England it soon obtained admiration; and a

* See a copious account of the Rev. Mr. Hunt's translation, Monthly Review for June and September, 1819.

† We have stated our favourable opinion of Mr. W.'s former publications in our Numbers for January and November, 1820.

translation of the first four books, by Carew, made its appearance in 1594, not many years after the first publication of the original. This early version is now extremely rare: but, were it more frequently found on our shelves, it is impossible that it could be generally read, even its great accuracy and fidelity being concealed in the uncouthness and antiquity of its phraseology. Yet we question whether it might not prove of the greatest use to a translator, in teaching him to pursue with strictness the ideas of his author, and to compress his language within due bounds. — The version of Fairfax is a noble poem: but it is most decidedly wanting in that accuracy which ought always to mark a translation; and it is not free from that strong character of mannerism, which distinguished the poets of the day in which Fairfax wrote. Its chief beauty consists in the acknowledged harmony and power of its versification, in which it has confessedly served as a model for some of our greatest masters of verse; and in which it has not been equalled by any subsequent attempts. Facility, variety, and strength of versification are the necessary qualifications of him who attempts to transfuse the beauties of Tasso into another language; and, notwithstanding the many other deficiencies which Hoole has displayed, it was here that his injustice to his original was most apparent. The monotonous measures of the heroic couplet, which lost in the hands of his imitators all the elegance and sweetness that Pope so well knew how to confer on it, was scarcely adapted to give an idea of the varying and expressive cadence of a poem, which its very harmony has endeared to a people whose apprehension of all that is musical in words and sounds is most delicate and correct. Of Mr. Hunt's recent translation, it is of course unnecessary for us to say thing farther in this place.

We need scarcely advert to the partial translations of Brooke and of Doyne, because, even had they been complete, they could by no means be considered as precluding any subsequent translator from attempting a more successful version.

Tasso is one of the easiest of the great Italian poets that a translator could select, while he is without doubt the most interesting. *Dante's* sublimity exercises no great power over the heart, because the imaginary transactions of another state of existence have no strong hold on our earthly passions; and we do not properly sympathize with the struggling souls which the great Florentine has placed in the bonds of purgatory, or with the devoted wretches whose lot he has encompassed with endless torments: — we cannot be deceived for a moment; — we acknowledge the power, but not the truth, of the poet's imagination. Occasionally, however, he descends to the level of human

human sympathy; and, in the cell of Ugolino, the terrific despair of the father and the sufferings of his famishing sons exercise unlimited sway over the heart. — The thoughts of *Petrarch* are almost too subtle and delicate, too exclusively peculiar to himself, to bear a translation uninjured; perhaps, therefore, few poets have appeared less successfully in a foreign garb; and, indeed, the spirit of his composition is not exactly suitable to the genius of English poetry. Still less is *Ariosto*, who is more national than either of the former authors, fitted to appear with advantage in an English dress. The epic of *Tasso*, on the other hand, must always find an interest in the hearts of its readers; not only from the chivalrous associations to which it gives rise, and its foundation on a subject which so long agitated the minds of men, but also from the many episodes in which it abounds, and from the delightful descriptions scattered through its pages, which render the perusal even of detached stanzas so pleasing. Hitherto, we have not had any version, if we except that of Fairfax, to which we could turn in search of such passages as these, with an assurance that we should meet with any thing like the harmony of the original; and in Fairfax we could not feel satisfied that we were reading Tasso. A translation, then, which should combine these advantages, could not fail to be acceptable to the British public; and we shall now proceed to give our readers an opportunity of judging whether Mr. Wiffen has supplied this deficiency.

The fourth book of the “*Jerusalem Delivered*” has been chosen by Mr. Wiffen as the specimen of his intended work, from a desire to display his execution not only of some of the sublimest but also of the richest and most luxurious portions of the poem. The descriptions of the awful impiety of Satan, and of the conquering beauty of Armida, are finely contrasted, and afford a fair opportunity for the exercise of very various powers. Mr. W.’s delineation of the infernal synod and their terrible leader is powerfully given:

‘ The Gods of the Abyss in various swarms
From all sides to the yawning portals throng,
Swift, at the shrieking signal — horrible forms,
Strange to the sight, unspeakable in song!
Death shone in all their eyes; some passed along
With animal tramp; some, as the Sirens fair,
Whose human faces bore the viper’s tongue,
And hissing snakes for ornamental hair,
Rode forth on dragon folds that lashed the raven air.

‘ There might you hear the Harpy’s clangorous brood,
The Python’s hiss, the Hydra’s wailing yell,

Mad Scylla barking in her greedy mood,
 And roaring Polypheme, the pride of hell ;
 Pale Gorgons, savage Sphinxes, Centaurs fell,
 Geryons, Chimeras breathing flakes of fire,
 Figures conceptionless, innumerable,
 Multiform visages in one, all dire,
 To the vast halls of Dis in hideous speed aspire.

‘ They took their station right and left around
 The grisly king ; he, cruel of command,
 Sate in the midst of them, and sourly frowned,
 The huge, rough sceptre in his brandished hand.
 No Alpine crag magnificently grand,
 No rock of the sea in size with him might vie ;
 Calpe, and Atlas soaring from the sand,
 Seemed to his stature little hills : so high
 Reared he his horned front in that stupendous sky.

‘ There was a majesty in his fierce face
 That deepening others’ fears, increased his pride ;
 His eyes were bloodshot, and instinct with rays
 That like a baleful comet, far and wide,
 Diffused a venomous splendour which outvied
 The fascinating snake’s ; barbarous and hoar
 His grand beard swept his breast, and, gaping wide
 As deep Charybdis on the Sicil shore,
 Yawned his terrific jaws, besmeared with foaming gore.

‘ His breath was like those sulphurous vapours born,
 In thunder, stench, and the live shotstar’s light,
 When red Vesuvius showers, by earthquakes torn,
 O’er sleeping Naples in the dead of night
 Funereal ashes ! whilst he spoke, affright
 Hushed howling Cerberus, Celæno’s shriek ; —
 Cocytus paused in his lamenting flight ;
 The abysses trembled ; horror chilled each cheek ;
 And these the words they heard the shouting giant speak.

‘ “ PRINCES OF HELL ! but worthier far to fill
 In Heaven, whence each one sprang, his diamond throne,
 Ye ! who with me were hurled from the blest hill,
 Where glorious as the morning-star we shone,
 To range these frightful dungeons — ye have known
 The ancient jealousies and fierce disdains
 Which goaded us to battle, — overthrown,
 We are judged rebels, and besieged with pains,
 Whilst o’er his starry droves the happy victor reigns.

‘ “ And for the ethereal air, serene and pure,
 The golden sun, and starry spheres, his hate
 Has locked us in this bottomless obscure,
 Forbidding bold ambition to translate
 Our spirits to their first divine estate.

Then, ah the bitter thought ! 'tis this which aye
Stings me to madness, — did he not create
The vile worm man, that thing of reptile clay,
To fill our vacant seats in those blue fields of day ?

' " Nor this sufficed ; to spite us more, he gave
His only Son, his darling, to the dead.
He came ; he burst the portals of the grave ;
Compassed our kingdoms with audacious tread ;
The spirits in torment doomed to us, he led
Back to the skies — his richly-ransomed throng ;
And, in our teeth, Hell's conquered ensigns spread,
Abroad on Heaven's bright battlements uphung,
The whilst ten thousand saints loud alleluiahs sung," &c. &c.

Few poems, in any language, can be compared for richness and beauty to that part of Tasso's fourth book which contains the portrait of Armida. The words are instinct with voluptuousness, — they breathe of Italy's warm skies and quicker feelings, — they are surrounded by an atmosphere of passion. Among the natives of our own chilly clime, we know but one poet whose imagination is capable of creating such a picture as this, or who could transfuse the spirit which animates the glowing lines of Tasso into his native language. Mr. Wiffen has almost declined the attempt; and, in endeavouring to elevate the sentiment of the original, by substituting in some measure the beauties of the mind for those of the person, he has detracted from the rich and high-wrought picture which Tasso has given. We copy the four stanzas which contain this description :

' Never did Greece or Italy behold
A form to fancy and to taste more dear !
At times, the white veil dims her locks of gold,
At times, in bright relief they re-appear :
Thus, when the stormy skies begin to clear,
Now through transparent clouds the sunshine gleams,
Now, issuing from its shrine, the gorgeous sphere
Lights up the vales, flowers, mountains, leaves, and streams,
With a diviner day — the spirit of bright beams.

' New ringlets form the flowing winds amid
The natural curls of her resplendent hair ;
Her blue eye, rolled beneath its shadowing lid,
Locks up its wealth with more than miser care ;
The rival roses upon cheeks more fair
Than morning light each other's claims oppose,
But on her lips, whose breath the love-sick air
Woos for its violet scent, the crimson rose,
Its whole voluptuous bloom in crowned dominion throws.

' Ripe as the grape just mellowing into wine,
 Her bosom swells to sight ; its lily breasts,
 Smooth, soft, and sweet, like alabaster shine,
 Part bare, part hid by her embroidered vests ;
 Whose jealous fringe the greedy eye arrests,
 But leaves its fond imaginations free,
 To sport, like doves, in those delicious nests,
 And their most shadowed secrecies to see ;
 Peopling with beautiful dreams the lively phantasy.

' As through the waters of a crystal spring,
 Blue with excessive depth, the sunbeam darts,
 Cleaving the still glass with its gorgeous wing,
 It leaves no wrinkle on the wave it parts :
 So, noiseless, Fancy dives in virgins' hearts
 Through vestures as unruffled, to explore
 Their amiable deceits, their shining arts,
 And the mind's cells, whence Love his golden ore
 Draws to illumine desire, and charm us more and more.'

The disdainful anger of Armida on the refusal of Godfrey is translated in the spirit and with much of the beauty of the original ; and a strong poetic feeling is displayed in the version of the following stanzas :

' She ceased ; a generous and majestic scorn
 Fired all her features to a rose-like red,
 And then she made as she would have withdrawn,
 With grief and anger in her farewell tread.
 Her eyes, 'twixt passion and resentment, shed
 Tears thick as summer's heat-drops — tears, that shine,
 With the sun's golden rays athwart them spread,
 Like falling pearls, like crystals argentine,
 Or sparkling opal-drops from some far Indian mine.

' Her fresh cheeks, sprinkled with those living showers,
 Which to her vesture's hem, down gliding, cling,
 Appear like jasmine and carnation flowers
 Humid with May-dews, when romantic Spring,
 In shadow of the green leaves whispering,
 Spreads their shut bosoms to the laughing air ; —
 Flowers — to which sweet Aurora oft takes wing,
 Which with gay hand she culls with such fond care
 In morn's melodious prime, to bind her vagrant hair.'

We shall here transcribe Fairfax's translation of the same lines as furnishing, we think, a fair test of the merits of the two translators :

" With that she look'd as if a proud disdain
 Kindled displeasure in her noble mind ;
 The way she came, she turn'd her steps again
 With gesture sad but in disdainful kind ;

A tem-

A tempest rained down her cheeks amain
 With tears of woe, and sighs of anger's wind :
 The drops her footsteps wash, whereon she treads,
 And seems to step on pearls or crystal beads.

" Her cheeks, on which this streaming nectar fell,
 (Still'd thro' the limbeck of her di'mond eyes)
 The roses white and red resembled well,
 Whereon the rosy May-dew sprinkled lies,
 When the fair morn first blusheth from her cell,
 And breatheth balm from open'd Paradise —
 Thus sigh'd, thus mourn'd, thus wept this lovely queen,
 And in each drop there bath'd a grace unseen."

FAIRFAX.*

We have selected these two stanzas from Fairfax, because they so well exemplify the peculiar spirit of his translation; and we shall now *dissect* the two versions, and compare them with the original, to enable the reader to form a judgment on their relative fidelity. We confess that, as far as the beauty of the poetry is concerned, we prefer Mr. Wiffen's lines: — but, we must give the Italian:

" *Qui tacque, e parve ch'un regale sdegno
 E generoso l'accendesse in vista ;
 E'l piè volgendo, di partir fea segno,
 Tutta negli atti dispettosa, e trista.
 Il pianto si spargea senza ritegno,
 Com' ira suol produrlo a dolor mista ;
 E le nascenti lagrime a vederle,
 Erano a' rai del Sol cristalli, e perle.*

" *Le guance asperse di que' vivi umori,
 Che giù cadean fin de la vesta al limbo,
 Parean vermigli insieme, e bianchi fiori,
 Se pur gl' irriga un rugiadoso nembo,
 Quando su l'apparir de' primi albori
 Spiegano all' aure liete il chiuso grembo ;
 E l'alba che gli mira, e se n'appaga,
 D'adornarsene il crin diventa vaga."*

The first stanza in both versions is perhaps as accurate as can reasonably be expected: but, with regard to the latter lines, we perceived an omission in Fairfax and an addition in the new translation. Fairfax has neglected to introduce the

* We quote from the fourth edition of Fairfax, 1749, the first edition not being within our reach at the present moment. We mention this to account for any inaccuracies which may be discovered in the quotation; for, as the Editor tells us, "some few alterations have been made in such stanzas as seemed necessarily to require them." We wish we could agree with him "that the reader will find no just cause of complaint" of such liberties.

beautiful figure of the rays of the sun gleaming on Armida's tears; while Mr. Wiffen has presented us with a new image, — happy and elegant, but not that of Tasso, — in her tears falling 'fast as summer's heat-drops;' and, in addition to Tasso's crystal and pearls, he has given us 'sparkling opal-drops from some far Indian mine.' An innocent amplification like this may be allowable; and indeed, without such a licence, it would be impossible to gain any freedom of translation. A translator may pursue an idea, and enlarge on it, though he transgresses the proper boundaries of his vocation when he presumes to vary from it, or to substitute his own inventions in its place.

Let us now examine the second stanza. Mr. Wiffen has followed his original with fidelity, diverging from it only in introducing the personification of Spring; an idea naturally born of the other beautiful thoughts in the stanza. Tasso makes the leaves display their own gay bosoms; while in the present version those concealed charms burst open at the whispers of the Spring. The remainder of the stanza is very sufficiently accurate. — With regard to Fairfax's translation of this stanza; in the second line, we have an entirely new image introduced, and such, moreover, as by no means assorts with the spirit of the stanza:

"Still'd through the limbeck of her di'mond eyes." *

It seems almost too ridiculous an idea to entertain, but is it possible that Fairfax can have so far mistaken the word *lembo* as to intend the above for the translation of it? He certainly does not mention the tears falling on the *border* or *hem* of Armida's garments. With the first four lines of this stanza, Fairfax seems to have abandoned all attempts at adhering to his author. He mentions the morn, indeed, but there all similarity ends; and we have nothing of the leaves bursting into life, — nothing of the beautiful picture with which the original stanza terminates; — instead of which, two entirely new lines are inserted, the latter containing as extravagant a *conchetto* as was ever formed in the heart of a *tramontane* poet.

"Thus sigh'd, thus mourn'd, thus wept this lovely queen,
And in each drop there bath'd a grace unseen."

We do not, in drawing this parallel, mean to detract from the acknowledged merits of Fairfax, and perhaps we are labouring too much in attempting to prove his inaccuracy and ine-

* Fairfax seems to have been a strong opponent of Mr. Bowles's "Principles of Poetry;" for scarcely any poet is more fond of introducing illustrations drawn from works of art. The above image, drawn from the Alchemist's Laboratory, may serve as an instance.
quality:

ality: but as his version alone is really worthy of the high poetic character of the two countries of which the poem itself is a native and a denizen, in pointing out its defects we are only doing our duty to the literature of our own island, which we would gladly see enriched with a translation in every way worthy of the original. Mr. Wiffen's power of accomplishing this object may perhaps be gathered from the extracts already given, and we shall only add the speech of the young and gallant Eustace:

' But Eustace, in whose young rebellious blood
Pity and love flowed strongest, whilst the rest
But murmured and were silent, forward stood,
And fearlessly his brother thus address'd:

" Oh Prince! far too inflexibly thy breast
Keeps to the firmness of its first design,
If to the popular voice which would obtest
Thy clemency, thou dost not now incline;
Reverent of mercy's claims and quality divine.

" " Think not I urge the princedoms and the powers
Who rank dependant tribes beneath their care,
To turn their arms from these assieged towers,
And the first duties of the camp forswear;
But warriors of adventure we, who bear
Nor feudal flag nor delegated trust,
Who act without restriction, well may spare
At thy discreet choice, in a cause most just,*
Ten guardian knights to one so helpless, so august.

" Know, he assists the cause of God who toils
The rights of outraged virgins to maintain,
And precious in Heaven's sight must be the spoils
Which freemen hang in freedom's holy fane,
The glorious trophies of a tyrant slain.
Though no advantage counselled to the deed,
Duty would urge and knighthood would constrain
Me to assist the damsel in her need,
And without scruple go where'er her voice may lead.

" " Oh, by yon bright sun, tell it not in France!*
Publish it not where courtesy is dear!
That of our nobles none would break a lance
In beauty's quarrel, let not Europe hear!
Henceforth, my lords, sword, corslet, helm, and spear,
I toss aside, and bid farewell to fame;
No generous steed shall bear me in career
With swordless chiefs, where chivalry weds shame,—
I will no longer bear the knight's degraded name!"

In conclusion, we must state our opinion that, on the whole, this specimen is highly creditable to the taste and talents of

* These lines greatly require metrical emendation.

Mr. Wiffen. He possesses strong powers of versification which, as we have already observed, are absolutely necessary to a translator of Tasso, and he manifests a warm and vigorous imagination. His acquaintance with poetical phraseology also, is various and extensive. A poet himself, he is delighted with his labour, and appears like Ariel to do "his spirit gently." The task which he has undertaken is most difficult and arduous, on which the highest minds might enter with diffidence and distrust: but Mr. W. certainly has the power of producing a work which will be honourable to the literature of his country and to his own fame; and we hope that he may meet with the encouragement which the attempt deserves.

Some defects in this translation might, however, be remedied by a more scrupulous attention. Occasionally we meet with a prosaic line, and not unfrequently with some ill-assorted epithets. Mr. W. does not often interpose thoughts of his own, but we observe instances in some places, as in stanzas 40, 41., and 54. His Introduction is sensible and candid, but in his prose style he betrays a little affectation, though it manifests thought, vigour, and imagination.

ART. VII. *A Vision of Judgement*. By Robert Southey, Esq. LL.D. Poet Laureate; Member of the Royal Spanish Academy, of the Royal Spanish Academy of History, and of the Royal Institute of the Netherlands, &c. 4to. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1821.

WE shall enter at once into the merits of the *English hexameters* which Mr. Southey has here presented to us, and defer our observations on his critical preface till we have illustrated his theory by his own examples.

The 'Vision of Judgement' (read it, or believe it, *who list!* *) is the summoning of 'George the Third' to the bar of Eternal Justice! The principal accusers are Wilkes and Washington; — that is, Wilkes directly accuses, and Washington implies still severer censure, by allowing the monarch of England to have *done his best!!!* That our readers may judge of the unintentional bitterness of satire which is conveyed in this passage, we shall select it; and we do not think that the patrons of the courtly laureate's last set of political principles† will

* We transfer this phrase from Cotton's *Travestie of Virgil*, with the more confidence because Mr. Southey has used it, p. xvii., preface, — 'follow me, *who list!*'

† It is necessary to be cautious in describing the present extreme point of the political compass to which the panegyrist of

Will thank him for so clumsy a scene of adulation as the following :

' The Absolvers.

Ho! he exclaim'd, King George of England standeth in judgement!
Hell hath been dumb in his presence. Ye who on earth arraign'd him,

Come ye before him now, and here accuse or absolve him!
For injustice hath here no place.

From the souls of the blessed
Some were there then who advanced ; and more from the skirts
of the meeting,

Spirits who had not yet accomplish'd their purification,
Yet being cleansed from pride, from faction and error deliver'd,
Purged of the film wherewith the eye of the mind is clouded,
They, in their better state, saw all things clear; and discerning
Now in the light of truth what tortuous views had deceived them,
They acknowledged their fault, and own'd the wrong they had
offer'd ;

Not without ingenuous shame, and a sense of compunction,
More or less, as each had more or less to atone for.

One alone remain'd, when the rest had retired to their station :

Silently he had stood, and still unmoved and in silence,

With a steady mien, regarded the face of the monarch.

Thoughtful awhile he gazed ; severe, but serene, was his aspect ;

Calm, but stern ; like one whom no compassion could weaken,

Neither could doubt deter, nor violent impulses alter :

Lord of his own resolves, .. of his own heart absolute master.

Awful spirit ! his place was with ancient sages and heroes :

Fabius, Aristides, and Solon, and Epaminondas.

' Here then at the gate of Heaven we are met ! said the spirit ;

King of England ! albeit in life opposed to each other,

Here we meet at last. Not unprepared for the meeting

Ween I ; for we had both outlived all enmity, rendering

Each to each that justice which each from each had withholden.

In the course of events, to thee I seem'd as a rebel,

Thou a tyrant to me ; ... so strongly doth circumstance rule men

During evil days, when right and wrong are confounded.

Left to our hearts we were just. For me, my actions have spoken,

That not for lawless desires, nor goaded by desperate fortunes,

Nor for ambition, I chose my part ; but observant of duty,

Self-approved. And here, this witness I willingly bear thee, ..

Here, before angels and men, in the awful hour of judgement, ..

Thou too didst act with upright heart, as befitted a sovereign,

True to his sacred trust, to his crown, his kingdom, and people.

Heaven in these things fulfill'd its wise, tho' inscrutable purpose,

While we work'd its will, doing each in his place as became him.

Wat Tyler, and the executioner of Johnny Wilkes, is pointing !
Who would have thought that the author of Democratical Sapphics, a few years ago, should now become the inditer of ultra-loyal hexameters !

' Washington !

' Washington! said the monarch, well hast thou spoken and truly,

Just to thyself and to me. On them is the guilt of the contest, —
Who, for wicked ends, with foul arts of faction and falsehood,
Kindled and fed the flame: but verily they have their guerdon.
Thou and I are free from offence. And would that the nations, —
Learning of us, would lay aside all wrongful resentment,
All injurious thought, and honouring each in the other
Kindred courage and virtue, and cognate knowledge and freedom.
Live in brotherhood wisely conjoined. We set the example.
They who stir up strife, and would break that natural concord,
Evil they sow, and sorrow will they reap for their harvest.*

Ample has been the opportunity afforded by this wild exhibition of prejudice, unpoetical as excessive, for all men of sense to appreciate the present state of the political intellects of our laureate. — "*Quæ quibus anteferam?*" With what shall we begin? where shall we end? Shall we consider the mild composure, the exquisite charity, with which Wilkes and Junius are consigned to the fiends of Loyal Persecution?

—— ' the blast with lightning and thunder
Vollying aright and aleft amid the accumulate blackness,
Scatter'd its inmates accurst!' P. 20.

Thus writes a man of his fellow-men! thus writes almost a contemporary of his countrymen! Blessed effects of *ultra-loyalism*! How soothing the principles must be that engender you! We have always condemned, in our hearts, the practice of those mortals who have dared to place their brethren, specified, named, persecuted (for so it is) in the *shades* or rather in the horrible *lights* of hell!!! Dante led the way; for the antient *vesuvia*, or views of the infernal regions, bear no resemblance to the modern, the CHRISTIAN liberties, on such subjects. The antients, even in their vain and blinded faith, saw enough to avoid the gross cruelty of condemning those who were still living, or lately dead; and it was left for men whom a better creed ought to have conducted to better feelings, to vent the vilest passions of human nature, the "envy, hatred, malice, and uncharitableness" of the corrupted soul, on every enemy of corruption, sincere or insincere. That we could say much more on this head is obvious: but it is equally plain that we must desist for the present, and return to our visionary politician, our *reconciler* of liberty and oppression, the laureate.

It must be with the calmest contempt that the admirers of the truly philosophical patriot, of the unrivalled *Washington*,

* Our readers will observe and remember the *casura* in these passages.

will

will look on this endeavour to compromise HIS patriotism, by a pretended approval on his part of the motives which produced the American war.* We shall not dilate on this topic, on the present occasion; and we have surely said enough to attract the aversion and indignation of the honest and the intelligent, towards such a confusion of all that is either sensible or true; — and Mr. Southey also has said enough, in all conscience.

We could multiply most abundantly the instances of absurd sentiment, and extravagant versification, which are supplied in this tame though odd effort. Our poetical readers will have observed (as we requested) the vile work which Mr. Southey makes with his own ludicrous hexameters. He stops in the middle; — more like the *bear* than the *fiddle*; — as for instance,

‘ Evil they sow, and sor-row will they reap for their harvest!’

‘ With a steady mien regar-ded the face of the monarch.’

This is but the aukward execution of an aukward plan: — but it is time to speak of the plan itself. Mr. Southey, with the usual complacency of the *Lake-school*, (of which he is the Fountain-Head, as Mr. Wordsworth is the Fountain-Tail,) consigns to utter oblivion ALL the mistaken labours of his predecessors in the English hexameter. In the course of some very shallow criticism, he pretends to discover the cause of their uniform failure; and he quotes amply from Sidney, Arcadian Sidney, to prove his point. By the way, which of Mr. Southey's hexameters is better than the subjoined?

“ First the rivers shall cease to repay their floods to the ocean.

“ First shall virtue be vice, and beauty be counted a blemish.”

(Sir Philip Sidney, quoted by Mr. Southey.) After having blamed all the attempts *previous to his own* in the composition of English hexameters †, the Laureate finds it necessary to bolster up his tottering cause by the opinion of Goldsmith! Poor Goldy! We should like to have seen the look of Johnson, or to have witnessed his emphatic intonation of disdain,

* It seems superfluous to refer our readers to authorities on this point. The subsequent tears cannot (humanly speaking) make amends for the previous *obstinacy*.

† Mr. Southey's alleged reason for the failure of these attempts is the following; that they ‘ wished to subject English pronunciation to the rules of Latin prosody.’ What has Mr. S. himself done?

had he heard the delightful, the pathetic, but not the profound Goldsmith, quoted as authority for *English hexameters*. With regard to this metre, on which Mr. Southey throws a useful light whatever in his very superficial and very self-satisfying preface, we shall remark that, if not scanned in accordance with the rules of Latin prosody, the lines are neither hexameters nor verses of *any* description; and, if they are so scanned, or pronounced, Heavens! what an improvement they are on the English versification of the nineteenth century! In the first place, they *must* have a *cæsura* or pause in the centre of the verse, or *all* rhythm is lost; and, if this *cæsura* occurs in the middle of a word, (as in two of the examples which we have quoted from Mr. Southey, and many might be added,) the rhythm is *proportionably* awkward and interrupted. Metrical reasoning, however, is really wasted on a wearer of the Bays who seems to have the loosest and most indistinct notions on such subjects; and who has given us a '*Vision of Judgement*,' in the strictest sense, being wholly destitute of the *reality*. Witness the following *associations*: *Washington*, and *George the Third*, as we have seen; *Taylor*, and *Marlborough*, among the "elder worthies;" *Hogarth*, and *Wesley*, among the later ditto; and, to take them in Mr. Southey's order still, among the other worthies of 'the *Georgian* age,' (as he fulsomely calls it,) '*Mansfield*, and *Burke*, and *Hastings*, and *Cowper*, and *Nelson*;' while, in bright succession, are introduced the 'young spirits;' viz. '*Canning*!!! *Davy*, *Haydon*, *Allston*, *Russell* and *Bamfylde*,'* and *Henry Kirk White*, who distinguishes Mr. Southey with a smile, when he sees him in heaven with all the above heterogeneous and anachronous 'worthies.'

"*Incipe, parve puer, risu dignoscere matrem;*"

and it is not the first time that "*mater*" or Mr. Southey has been welcomed with a smile. Our more initiated readers will have perceived that we have already offered them, in the unassuming progress of our prose, several specimens of Mr. Southey's school of hexameters: but we add some more obvious imitations:

Southey, what can you mean, Oh, minstrel of *Thlab* the Destroyer,
Minstrel of Joan of Arc, and Madoc, him the world-finder,
Minstrel of last of the Goths, but far from the first Gothic minstrel,
Flattering bard of a Crown, and farthing poet of Tyler,

* Not to know "Carter," says the lottery-puff, argues yourself unknown. True: but we must acknowledge that we know not Russell or Bamfylde!

Southey,

Southey, what can you mean by this new hexameter measure?
Is it because you are bound thus to sing the new Georgian æra?
Or because you are loose in political songs altogether?
Have you forgotten your Sapphics, in pity for Henry Marten,
Or do we here mistake, and were they for Brownrigg's apprentice?
Canning best can tell, who wrote "the Needy Knifegrinder,"
And ground on his whetstone of wit the Jacobin edge of your dullness.

Oh! would he now turn round, as you set the example of turning,
Well might he sing, or say, "For sack's sake, Southey, be quiet!"

Sapphics imply a *plot* — and hexameter verse is a *riot* —

Oliver, Sidmouth, and Co., are on the look out for another;

And the Constitutional boy, young Orton, may ruin a brother.

It is not thus, however, that we can part with Mr. Southey.
Much as we condemn his ultra-politics of both kinds,

("The wild extremes of his contrasted muse,")

and particularly the unsparing asperity with which he pursues
the advocates of his own former opinions, still we have too
much respect for great talents and great acquirements, in any
possessors, not to lament their *perversion*, and we fear we
must add *degradation*, in the present instance. Let our
readers judge of some passages in the following extract for
themselves:

'We owe much to the House of Brunswick; but to none of
that illustrious House more than to your Majesty, under whose
government the military renown of Great Britain has been carried
to the highest point of glory. From that pure glory there has
been nothing to detract; the success was not more splendid than
the cause was good; and the event was deserved by the genero-
sity, the justice, the wisdom, and the magnanimity of the counsels
which prepared it. The same perfect integrity has been mani-
fested in the whole administration of public affairs. More has
been done than was ever before attempted, for mitigating the evils
incident to our stage of society; for imbuing the rising race with
those sound principles of religion on which the welfare of states
has its only secure foundation; and for opening new regions to the
redundant enterprize and industry of the people. Under your
Majesty's government, the metropolis is rivalling in beauty those
cities which it has long surpassed in greatness: sciences, arts, and
letters are flourishing beyond all former example; and the last
triumph of nautical discovery and of the British flag, which had
so often been essayed in vain, has been accomplished. The
brightest portion of British history will be that which records the
improvements, the works, and the achievements of the Georgian
age.'

We need not point out to the discerning where the
"courtly dew" of adulation drops strongest, in the above
eulogium.

eulogium on 'the Georgian age;' or where it exceeds those due bounds of deserved panegyric, beyond which manly loyalty ceases to breathe, and pestilent flattery exhales her abominations. With regard to the perversion of *taste*, can there be a more lamentable proof of it than the whole of this volume? No sophistry, and least of all such lame and impotent sophistry as that which pervades the Preface to the 'Vision,' can reconcile an Englishman of any sense or fancy (unperverted by silly theories of variety) to *English hexameters*. Mr. Southey may be right, or wrong, as to the bibliographical question about their real authors:—we leave him to decide it with any of the knights of Roxburghe:—but the question, of any general interest, is this; Is the English language adapted to such a metre?—Mr. Southey, we think, has fully answered this question by the best of all replies, a practical reply; and well may we ask in our turn,

"Southey, what can you *mean*?" &c. &c.

laying a strong emphasis on "*mean*;" and on all corresponding syllables in this extraordinary measure, which consists in fact, rather of two verses than one.

If it be expected of us to exhibit this celebrated Preface (the happy counterpart to Wordsworth's equally famous Lyrical Pro-emium, or Self-panegyric Overture,) in its own colours, we shall favour the reader with a choice specimen: but of its delightful strain of egotistical composure, no adequate idea can be formed except by the patience of a thorough perusal. It would place any body but so gifted a being as Mr. Southey at the very zenith of the poetico-prosaic "*Duncery*," or "*Dunderheadery*," as it perhaps may better be called.

'The feet must too frequently be made up of monosyllables, and of distinct words, whereby the verse is resolved and decomposed into its component feet, and the feet into their component syllables, instead of being articulated and inscuated throughout, as in the German; still more in the Greek, and most in the Latin measure. This is certainly a great defect. From the same cause the *cæsura* generally coincides with a pause in the sentence; but, though this breaks the continuity of the verse, it ought perhaps rather to be considered as an advantage; for the measure, like blank verse, thus acquires greater variety. It may possibly be objected, that the four first feet are not metrical enough in their effect, and the two last too much so.'

In our opinion, the author has here completely cut the throat of his own preposterous attempt, in the very act of *most strenuously* defending it; for he adds that 'he does not *feel*' the last 'objection,' although 'one whose opinion would make him

him distrust his own' has advanced it. In this *most strenuous defence*, we descry the following *acknowledgements and contradictions*: — first, the absolute necessity of *reading* this verse, to a certain degree, as if we were *scanning* it, which follows from the 'decomposition' acknowledged; and, secondly, the dead stop in the middle, producing the effect of a horse first refusing a leap, and then taking it by a violent effort from the place where he stands:

'Reach'd the remotest East, or invading the kingdom of Winter,' p. 32.;

and so throughout, where the verse is legitimately constructed. Even a slight deviation from this construction produces some proportionable awkwardness.

'While of the *Georgian* age they thought, and the glory of England.' *Ibid*.

Here the horse stops, — a fearful space indeed, — and then takes a short jump at last, most threatening to his rider. In some lines, however, the rhythm is wholly or partially lost, by the very want of this *bear-and-fiddle* fault, of stopping in the middle. For example:

'Or in foreign earth they have moulder'd, hastily cover'd ;'
P. 40.

'Not without ingenuous shame, and a sense of compunction ;'

a passage already quoted.

Will it do no harm to literary taste and classical nurture, to teach our ingenuous students that such things as these are *English verses*? Is not the tone of our compatriot poetry lowered enough, without these new relaxations? Yes ;

Datur Angliacis venia hæc indigna poetis ;

and Mr. Southey would amplify it still farther. If we are not tempted to observe with the late hierophant of the Grecian drama, "Mr. S. will be remembered *when* Homer and Virgil are forgotten," we certainly *are* justified in remarking with Lord Byron, by a very trifling change,

"In many sober-coloured volumes view
Southey — in vain attempting *something new*."

See "English Bards," reading *sober* for *marble*, and Southey for Hayley.

If any of our readers have not discovered the '*contradictions*' in the foregoing prose-quotation from Mr. Southey, we beg that they will be pleased to observe that, when Mr. Southey confesses that 'the *cæsura* generally coincides with a

pause in the sentence,' and then adds that 'the measure thus acquires *greater variety*,' he forgets that what *generally* occurs cannot well contribute to *variety*; especially when the occurrence, in almost ninety-nine cases out of a hundred of the said break in the rhythm, takes place as precisely in the centre of the verse as the *cæsura* in the French Alexandrine. Mr. S. has either not weighed with his usual diligence (for we believe he is diligence personified) the whole of this particular subject of metre, or he has some *perverted theory* about it; or, finally, he labours under that deficiency which many wise and worthy men betray, of a full and perfect knowledge in the curious craft or mystery of antient and modern quantity and accentuation. He does not, in a word, possess his *Arts* and *Thesis* as he ought.

We have deemed it incumbent on us to endeavour to set to its right pitch the tone of lofty exultation, with which these new discoverers of wonders in the world of poetry announce their own inventions. We are too old, we confess, to expect any fresh "*mare's nests*" of this nature; and we recollect the time when the most ardent enthusiast for the composition of English hexameters would have *blushed*, and not *gloried*, to make his metrical aberrations public:— "*mais nous avons changé tout cela*," in 'the Georgian age!'

We now take leave of Mr. Southey, whatever he may think, with unfeigned depression at the sight of such ample powers so uselessly diffused in poetry; and so sadly "giving up to party what was meant for mankind," in the sacred offices of reason.

ART. VIII. *Memoirs from 1754 to 1758*. By James Earl Waldegrave, K. G., one of His Majesty's Privy Council in the Reign of George II., and Governor to the Prince of Wales, afterward George III. Large 8vo. pp. 176. 1l. 5s. Boards. Murray. 1821.

ART. IX. *Recollections and Reflections, Personal and Political, as connected with Public Affairs, during the Reign of George III.* By John Nicholls, Esq., Member of the House of Commons in the 15th, 16th, and 18th Parliaments of Great Britain. 8vo. pp. 408. 12s. Boards. Ridgway. 1820.

WE place these works together, on account of their partial connection as treating of the same personages, and their consequent power of illustrating each other; and though Mr. Nicholls may plead priority of publication, we doubt not that he will allow us to give the *pas* to the member of the Upper House. Lord Waldegrave's memoirs, however, are not

particularly valuable for the facts which they detail, because the short period included in them is one of which the world is already well acquainted with both the private and the public history: but they interest by the sketches of characters with which they are interspersed; and which, though perhaps written with too much study for effect, are, on the whole, executed in a very masterly manner. The Earl was a man not only of considerable observation, but of plain sound sense; and, with the single exception of one occasion, in which he was over-ruled by the King's wishes that he should become his minister, and when he passed some days in a fruitless attempt to form a cabinet, he seems never to have sacrificed his better judgment to his ambition, or to have allowed himself to be the dupe of an inferior understanding. Though he was friendly to the Duke of Newcastle, and at one period exerted himself in very troublesome negotiations to procure his resumption of power, yet nothing can be more amusing than the character which he delineates of that veteran but contemptible statesman. It is always a serious drawback with us from the respect which, on many accounts, we feel for the administration of Sir Robert Walpole, that it was under his auspices that Mr. Pelham was initiated, and matured by a service of eighteen years as a subaltern, in the intrigues and routine of office; and that it was under the system which he established that the same personage was afterward able, by means of his wealth and borough-influence, notwithstanding his strange ignorance both of domestic and foreign affairs, and his deficiency in judgment, system, or statesman-like capacity of any kind, to maintain himself for nearly an equal number of years as premier: servilely complying with every thing in which the court was concerned, and ruling a nation that despised and ridiculed him, until he was compelled to retire from difficulties which his incapacity had produced and his timidity could not encounter. At last, however, he did effectually shrink; and the contempt and ignominy, which his councils had brought on this nation abroad, were soon effaced by the vigorous enterprizes and brilliant triumphs effected by the wisdom of Pitt.

It is very entertaining to read also Lord Waldegrave's comments on some points of this great man's character, written just at the period when he was putting forth into action all the energies of his genius, and shaking off all the incumbrances of a sickly constitution as well as an embarrassed fortune; when he was not merely bandying about arguments in the House of Commons, but, through his own confidential emissaries, had intelligence of what was passing in every court in Europe;

and when, by the plans which he was executing in America and in the West Indies, he was enabling his country (if we may be allowed to use one of his own bold phrases) "to trample down impossibilities under foot." At this period, Lord Waldegrave observes of him :

' He mixes little in company, confining his society to a small juncto of his relations, with a few obsequious friends, who consult him as an oracle, admire his superior understanding, and never presume to have an opinion of their own.

' This separation from the world is not entirely owing to pride, or an unsociable temper ; as it proceeds partly from bad health and a weak constitution. But he may find it an impassible barrier in the road of ambition ; for though the mob can sometimes raise a minister, he must be supported by persons of higher rank, who may be mean enough in some particulars, yet will not be the patient followers of any man who despises their homage and avoids their solicitations.

' Besides, it is a common observation, that men of plain sense and cool resolution have more useful talents, and are better qualified for public business, than the man of the finest parts, who wants temper, judgement, and knowledge of mankind. Even parliamentary abilities may be too highly rated ; for between the man of eloquence and the sagacious statesman there is a wide interval.'

Even the great Lord Chatham, however, ought scarcely to have attracted our attention, in viewing these portraitures, before we had paid our respects to the principal personage in them, King George II., whom Lord W. thus delineates :

' The King is in his 75th year ; but temperance and an excellent constitution have hitherto preserved him from many of the infirmities of old age.

' He has a good understanding, though not of the first class ; and has a clear insight into men and things, within a certain compass.

' He is accused by his ministers of being hasty and passionate when any measure is proposed which he does not approve of ; though, within the compass of my own observation, I have known few persons of high rank who could bear contradiction better, provided the intention was apparently good, and the manner decent.

' When any thing disagreeable passes in the closet, when any of his ministers happen to displease him, it cannot long remain a secret ; for his countenance can never dissemble : but to those servants who attend his person, and do not disturb him with frequent solicitations, he is ever gracious and affable.

' Even in the early part of life he was fond of business ; at present, it is become almost his only amusement.

' He has more knowledge of foreign affairs than most of his ministers, and has good general notions of the constitution, strength,

strength, and interest of this country : but being past thirty when the Hanover succession took place, and having since experienced the violence of party, the injustice of popular clamor, the corruption of parliaments, and the selfish motives of pretended patriots, it is not surprising that he should have contracted some prejudices in favor of those governments where the royal authority is under less restraint.

‘ Yet prudence has so far prevailed over these prejudices, that they have never influenced his conduct. On the contrary, many laws have been enacted in favor of public liberty; and in the course of a long reign, there has not been a single attempt to extend the prerogative of the crown beyond its proper limits.

‘ He has as much personal bravery as any man, though his political courage seems somewhat problematical : however, it is a fault on the right side ; for had he always been as firm and undaunted in the closet as he shewed himself at Oudenarde and Dettingen, he might not have proved quite so good a king in this limited monarchy.

‘ In the drawing-room, he is gracious and polite to the ladies, and remarkably cheerful and familiar with those who are handsome, or with the few of his old acquaintance who were beauties in his younger days.

‘ His conversation is very proper for a tête-à-tête : he then talks freely on most subjects, and very much to the purpose ; but he cannot discourse with the same ease, nor has he the faculty of laying aside the king, in a larger company ; not even in those parties of pleasure which are composed of his most intimate acquaintance,

‘ His servants are never disturbed with any unnecessary waiting ; for he is regular in all his motions to the greatest exactness, except on particular occasions, when he outruns his own orders, and expects those who are to attend him before the time of his appointment. This may easily be accounted for : he has a restless mind, which requires constant exercise ; his affairs are not sufficient to fill up the day ; his amusements are without variety, and have lost their relish ; he becomes fretful and uneasy, merely for want of employment ; and presses forward to meet the succeeding hour before it arrives.

‘ Too great attention to money seems to be his capital failing ; however, he is always just, and sometimes charitable, though seldom generous : but when we consider how rarely the liberality of princes is directed to the proper object, being usually bestowed on a rapacious mistress, or an unworthy favorite, want of generosity, though it still continues a blot, ceases, at least, to be a vice of the first magnitude.

‘ Upon the whole, he has some qualities of a great prince, many of a good one, none which are essentially bad ; and I am thoroughly convinced that hereafter, when time shall have wore away those specks and blemishes which sully the brightest characters, and from which no man is totally exempt, he will be numbered amongst those patriot kings, under whose government the people have enjoyed the greatest happiness.’

The transactions at Leicester House, during the period of these Memoirs, had been before given to the world in a manner sufficiently ample in Lord Melcombe's diary : but, as Lord Waldegrave for some time filled the station there of governor to the Prince of Wales, afterward George the Third, our readers will perhaps be pleased to read the character drawn of that Prince by one who was so near his person, whose situation required him to have an accurate knowledge of the true disposition of his charge at that early period of life, and whose fidelity of statement seems unquestionable :

(1758.) ' The Prince of Wales is entering into his 21st year — and it would be unfair to decide upon his character in the early stages of life, when there is so much time for improvement.

' His parts, though not excellent, will be found very tolerable — if ever they are properly exercised.

' He is strictly honest, but wants that frank and open behaviour — which makes honesty appear amiable.

' When he had a very scanty allowance, it was one of his favorite maxims that men should be just before they are generous : his income is now very considerably augmented, but his generosity has not increased in equal proportion.

' His religion is free from all hypocrisy, but is not of the most charitable sort ; he has rather too much attention to the sins of his neighbour.

' He has spirit, but not of the active kind ; and does not want resolution, but it is mixed with too much obstinacy.

' He has great command of his passions, and will seldom do wrong, except when he mistakes wrong for right ; but as often as this shall happen, it will be difficult to undeceive him, because he is uncommonly indolent, and has strong prejudices.

' His want of application and aversion to business would be far less dangerous, was he eager in the pursuit of pleasure ; for the transition from pleasure to business is both shorter and easier than from a state of total inaction.

' He has a kind of unhappiness in his temper, which, if it be not conquered before it has taken too deep a root, will be a source of frequent anxiety. Whenever he is displeased, his anger does not break out with heat and violence ; but he becomes sullen and silent, and retires to his closet ; not to compose his mind by study or contemplation, but merely to indulge the melancholy enjoyment of his own ill humor. Even when the fit is ended, unfavorable symptoms very frequently return, which indicate that on certain occasions his Royal Highness has too correct a memory.

' Though I have mentioned his good and bad qualities, without flattery, and without aggravation, allowances should still be made, on account of his youth, and his bad education : for though the Bishop of Peterborough, now Bishop of Salisbury *, the precep-

tor; Mr. Stone, the sub-governor; and Mr. Scott, the sub-preceptor, were men of sense, men of learning, and worthy, good men, they had but little weight and influence. The mother and the nursery always prevailed.

‘ During the course of the last year, there has, indeed, been some alteration; the authority of the nursery has gradually declined, and the Earl of Bute, by the assistance of the mother, has now the intire confidence. But whether this change will be greatly to his Royal Highness's advantage, is a nice question, which cannot hitherto be determined with any certainty.’

It is both natural and desirable, after having surveyed these pictures, to inquire into the merits of the painter; and, though we have already intimated his character and talents, we must add a few other remarks. The editor of the volume, whose name does not appear, speaks of him in terms of the highest respect, though he is represented as not personally prepossessing, and as not gifted with the brightest genius: but he seems to have deserved the essential praise which is allotted to him, and which is dispensed with peculiar effect and energy in the inscription on his monument. It is somewhat prolix, but we must quote this epitaph:

“ He died of the small-pox, aged 48. These were his years in number; what they were in wisdom, hardly belongs to time. The universal respect paid to him while he lived, and the universal lamentation at his death, are ample testimonies of a character not easily to be paralleled. He was for many years the chosen friend and favourite of a king, who was a judge of men, yet never that king's minister, though a man of business, knowledge, and learning, beyond most of his cotemporaries; but ambition visited him not, and contentment filled his hours. Appealed to for his arbitration by various contending parties in the state, upon the highest differences, his judgment always tempered their dissensions, while his own principles, which were the freedom of the people and the maintenance of the laws, remained stedfast and unshaken, and his influence unimpaired, though exercised through a long series of struggles, that served as foils to his disinterested virtue. The constancy and firmness of his mind were proof against every trial but the distresses of mankind; and therein he was a rock with many springs, and his generosity was as the waters that flow from it, nourishing the plains beneath. He was wise in the first degree of wisdom, master of a powerful and delicate wit, had a ready conception and as quick parts as any man that ever lived, and never lost his wisdom in his wit, nor his coolness by provocation. He smiled at things that drive other men to anger. He was a stranger to resentment, not to injuries; those feared him most that loved him, yet he was revered by all; for he was as true a friend as ever bore that name, and as generous an enemy as ever bad man tried. He was in all things undisturbed, modest, placid, and humane. To him broad day-light and the commerce of the world were as easy

as the night and solitude. To him the return of night and solitude must have been a season of ever blest reflection. To him this now deep night must, through the merits of his Redeemer Jesus Christ, be everlasting peace and joy.

“O death, thy sting is to the living! O grave, thy victory is over the unburied! the wife — the child — the friend that is left behind.

“Thus saith the widow of this incomparable man, his once most happy wife, now the faithful remembrancer of all his virtues, Maria Countess-Dowager of Waldegrave, who inscribes this tablet to his beloved memory.”

The opinion advanced by Lord W., at the end of his Memoirs, respecting the value of an intimacy with courts, affords a farther specimen of his own manliness and sincerity, tempered and even repressed by a delicacy which we cannot blame, though we probably suffer by its influence:

‘I have now finished my relation of all the material transactions wherein I was immediately concerned; and though I can never forget my obligations to the kindest of masters, I have been too long behind the scenes, I have had too near a view of the machinery of a court, to envy any man either the power of a minister, or the favor of princes.

‘The constant anxiety, and frequent mortifications, which accompany ministerial employments, are tolerably well understood; but the world is totally unacquainted with the situation of those whom fortune has selected to be the constant attendants and companions of royalty, who partake of its domestic amusements, and social happiness.

‘But I must not lift up the veil; and shall only add, that no man can have a clear conception how great personages pass their leisure hours, who has not been a prince’s governor, or a king’s favorite.’

These remarks unavoidably call to mind the exclamation of Henry the Fourth of France; “*Blessed is the man who lives far from courts, and knows not me:*” a reflection which intimates that the situation of the chief personage in them is as little desirable, as the testimony of Lord Waldegrave proves that of his dependents to be. Indeed, his statement of the disquietudes of George the Second has a directly similar tendency; and those of his successor were probably not less.

Appended to the volume, among other papers, are a few letters from Mr. Fox, the first Lord Holland, never before published, which were written by him when he as well as Lord Chatham was in opposition to the Duke of Newcastle; and when, though unfriendly to him, they were, in some degree, rivals to one another. In his Memoirs, Lord W. certainly does not render justice to Lord Chatham, but speaks of Murray, afterward Lord Mansfield, as being his superior in argu-

ment, as well as his equal in every point of eloquence except in abuse; and in another place he talks of his political sins as being black and dangerous. We are pleased to see, however, that he does justice to Lord Holland; and the statesman, who was by many aspersed as the "defaulter of unaccounted millions," is most truly described by Lord Waldegrave as clear and communicative in business, frank and agreeable in society, a warm friend, and a man of veracity and of honour. Lord W. also gives him great credit for the greatest simplicity and directness of dealing in all communications which ever passed between them. Now, in the letters to which we have alluded, Lord Holland relates two instances in which Murray did not shew himself superior to Lord Chatham in argument, or any match for him in eloquence; and we will make extracts from these two letters, which present the gratifying spectacle of a man of ability, in a confidential communication, speaking so handsomely of a rival:

“ *Letter from Mr. Fox (afterwards Lord Holland) to the Marquis of Hartington (afterwards Duke of Devonshire).*

“ My dear Lord,

“ November 26. 1754.

“ You would be with reason angry, if, after your commands, I let such a day as yesterday pass, without being the occasion of a letter to you. I did not come in till the close of the finest speech that Pitt ever spoke, and, perhaps, the most remarkable; of which I can give your Lordship a true, though it must be a hearsay, account.

“ Mr. Wilkes, a friend it seems of Pitt's, petitioned against the younger Delaval, chose at Berwick, on account of bribery only. The younger Delaval made a speech on his being thus attacked, full of wit, humour, and buffoonery, which kept the house in a continual roar of laughter. Mr. Pitt came down from the gallery, and took it up in his highest tone of dignity. He was astonished when he heard what had been the occasion of their mirth. Was the dignity of the House of Commons on so sure foundations that they might venture themselves to shake it? — Had it not, on the contrary, by gradations been diminishing for years, till now we were brought to the very brink of the precipice, where, if ever, a stand must be made? High compliments to the Speaker, — eloquent exhortation to Whigs of all conditions, to defend their attacked and expiring liberty, &c. Unless you will degenerate into a little assembly, serving no other purpose than to register the arbitrary edicts of one too powerful subject (laying on the words *one* and *subject* the most remarkable emphasis). I have verified these words by five or six different people, so that your Lordship may be assured they were his very words. When I came in, he was recapitulating; and ended with “*our being designed, or likely*, (I cannot tell which he said,) *to be an appendix to — I know not what — I have no name for it.*” Displeased, as well as pleased, allow it to be the finest speech that was ever made; and it was observed, that by his first

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two periods, he brought the House to a silence and attention, that you might have heard a pin drop. Except the words marked, observe that I do not pretend to give your Lordship his words, but only the purport of his speech, of which a good deal was on bribery, I suppose, and the manner of treating it, which so much tended to lower, what was already brought too low, the authority of the House of Commons. The Speaker shook him by the hand, ready to shake it off; which, I hear, gave almost as great offence as the speech. I just now hear the Duke of Newcastle was in the utmost fidget, and that it spoiled his stomach yesterday.

‘Legge got up after Pitt; gave his assent and consent to the maintenance of the dignity of the House of Commons, which, he hoped, they would think best maintained by a steady adherence to Whig principles, on which, *whether sooner or latter, whatever is to be my fate, I am determined to stand or fall.* This, I suppose, meant for Murray, who looked pale and miserable, most remarkably so; but neither he nor any body else said a word.’—

‘*Mr. Fox to Lord Hartington.*

‘My dear Lord,

‘*Thursday, November 28. 1754.*

‘More news. — Pitt entertained us again yesterday; and I never wished more than yesterday for your Lordship, for the pleasure it would have given you. The two Beckfords *only*, and very stupidly, opposed the army; I answered very short, and without going in the least from the purpose. Lord Barrington and Nugent made unnecessary and fulsome speeches; both declaring the extreme popularity not only of his Majesty but of his ministers, and that *there were no Jacobites in England.* Nugent flattered the Duke of Newcastle by the name even of the first Lord of the Treasury, and not without allusion to Pitt’s Monday speech. Pitt, angry perhaps at this, did not, however, say a word of it. But (after treating the question in a masterly way, and on a very different foot from what they had done, in three and four sentences) introduced his opinion of Jacobitism; of the tendency of too great a security on that head; and of that seminary of disaffection, Oxford. He introduced the last in the prettiest manner in the world. Nugent had said, that many who thought they had nursed up Jacobites were extremely surprised when the trial came to find they were not such. He lived in the country a good deal, and rural images presented themselves. He had seen a hen that had hatched duck-eggs, with surprise seen them follow, whenever the water came in view, what sense and nature, not she, had taught them. Pitt, after talking gravely and finely on the subject, said this ingenious image struck him: “for, Sir, I know of such a hen,” &c.; which he most delightfully brought out to be the University of Oxford: but begged them “not to be too sure that all she hatched would ever entirely forget what she had taught them.” He was nearly (perhaps quite) single now; but he wished he might not live to see the day, when, not with declamation, not with anger, (which Nugent had accused him of,) but with deep concern of heart, those who would not listen to him now should say, when it was too late, “You were

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in the right;" (this was for old Horace). Sir Roger Newdigate answered *pro forma*. Pitt rose again, and told the story of what had happened to him in a party of pleasure at Oxford lately; a story told most elegantly, most inimitably: Oxford had nothing to say. He made his inferences as before; and in both speeches every word was *Murray*; yet so managed, that neither he nor any body else could or did take public notice of it, or in any degree reprehend him. I sate next Murray; *who suffered for an hour.*—

The volume of 'Recollections and Reflections' by Mr. Nicholls is the production of an old man, whom we and many of our readers remember as a respectable though never successful Whig member of the House of Commons; and it bears evident marks throughout of being so derived, in the frankness of the comments, in the mixture of important matter with trifles, in the decisive and prophetic tone which is occasionally assumed, and above all in the digressions and repetitions with which it abounds. At the same time, it must be admitted to be the work of a man who has through life kept an observant eye on the scenes which have passed before him; and who, though he has not been a hero himself, has yet played the part of a gentleman among the personages of the drama, and been conversant with heroes. Mr. Nicholls seems to have entered public life under the protection of Lord Shelburne, and sat in three parliaments, viz. from 1781 to 1783, from 1784 to 1791, and from 1796 to 1800. He began his career during the administration of Lord North, in the ranks of the Opposition, which was then composed of the adherents of Lord Shelburne and the Marquis of Rockingham; and he speaks uniformly in the highest terms of the lamented Marquis, who was, in fact, a man of a very sound understanding. On the fall of Lord North, Mr. Nicholls was a supporter of the Rockingham administration: but on the death of its leader, and on the coalition which ensued between Mr. Fox and Lord North, he resumed his place in the Opposition; and he is very severe on the East-India Bill, of which he attributes the introduction and the whole arrangement to Mr. Burke. From 1784 to 1791 he appears in general to have been a supporter of Mr. Pitt's measures; or at least, on a retrospect, he considers them to have been, on the whole, beneficial to the country: but that minister's conduct during the French Revolution made Mr. Nicholls view his character in a very different light; and he gives a separate chapter on the causes of that great event, which contains a particularly clear and judicious dissertation on that subject.

Among the *principal* causes he enumerates, first, the odious distinction of *noblesse* and *bourgeoisie*; the whole population being

being divided into two *castes*, the one degraded and disabled, the other privileged and exclusively eligible to the principal posts of honour and emolument. Next, the feudal burden on lands, the *taille*, the *corvées*, the slavish customs of *poursuite* for marriage and *mainmorte*, the rights of *peage*, *travers*, *rollage*, and *bannage*, the incidents of *giste*, *paste*, *fourniture*, *guet*, and *gude*, and all the other perplexed and oppressive services which fell exclusively on the *people*. Thirdly, he reckons the power usurped by the kings of France in imposing taxes by their own sole authority; and, fourthly, the general antipathy to the clergy. — Among the *accelerating* causes of the Revolution, Mr. N. ranks the writings of the French philosophers, the alliance with Austria in 1756, the interference of France in support of our American colonies, the personal character of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette, the conduct of the parliament of Paris, and what he considers as the vanity and incapacity of M. Necker as a statesman. He goes through the details illustrative of his positions in a very perspicuous and masterly manner. In another part of his work, he places in a very strong point of view the delusion practised by Mr. Burke, in urging that the French Revolution was an insurrection of the people against the constituted authorities, or of the commonalty against the nobility; that, if the *noblesse* were not re-established in France, nobility would be abolished in England; and that every motive of self-preservation and policy should induce the principal Whig families in this country to declare in favour of a war with their riotous neighbours. Mr. Nicholls justly inquires whether such arguments ought to have received any attention.

‘The circumstance,’ he observes, ‘which had most contributed to the French Revolution was the distinction between *noblesse* and *bourgeoisie*. Thirty thousand noble families were supposed to comprehend one hundred and fifty thousand individuals. These claimed exemption from the most burdensome taxes, and exclusive advancement in the army, in the navy, in the church, and in the parliaments. In England no such distinction between *noblesse* and *bourgeoisie* exists. Our hereditary nobles are few, not exceeding in number two hundred and fifty: they possess no exemption from the payment of any tax; nor are they intitled to exclusive advancement in the army, the navy, the church, or the law: their children are of the order of the commonalty. In truth, British peers are magistrates, hereditary legislators, hereditary judges, and hereditary advisers of the crown: they have as little resemblance to French *noblesse* as they have to the order of mandarins in China.’

A class of nobility, such as that which exists in this country; we hope will ever continue, because we believe it to be highly bene-

beneficial to the whole community, and one of the strongest safeguards which can be devised against the oppression or usurpations of the crown: but a class of beings such as those which existed in France, who at home were the tyrants of their wide domains and in Paris the jackalls and retainers of a profligate court, — who, as they were exempt from paying taxes, in their own short-sightedness fancied themselves merely interested to maintain and extend the abuses of the crown, — whose immunities served only to pervert their judgment and to destroy their sense of justice, — and whose seignorial rights tended but to reduce the rest of the community to the condition of bondsmen and brutes, — we rejoice that such a class of beings has been swept away from the surface of France. Wheresoever else on the Continent, also, such privileges still exist, not founded in the general good of society, but which render one part of the community the drones and caterpillars to feed on the vitals of the rest, we trust that such loathsome imposthumes and excrescences will in the course of time be discussed or lopped off. At the beginning of the French Revolution, however, every artifice of sophistry was used to inflame and delude the people of this kingdom; and, as similar names were applied in the two countries to institutions essentially different, such names were echoed and re-echoed, without the speaker or hearer pausing to reflect on the things signified.

The subject of the French Revolution is connected in every body's mind with the writings of Mr. Burke, and Mr. Nicholls is induced to appropriate a particular chapter to the consideration of that eminent man's character: while in another part of his volume he mentions two anecdotes relating to Mr. Burke, which we have often heard mentioned, but around which a considerable degree of obscurity has been thrown. The one is that, during the latter years of the parliament which was dissolved in 1780, Mr. Burke, who till that time had been the acknowledged leader of the Rockingham party in the House of Commons, became very unpopular with it, and to such a degree that it was a matter of consideration whether he should not retire from the House: though it was ultimately resolved that he should only resign his post of command, and that Mr. Fox should take the lead of that party, and be brought in member for Westminster by their influence. The other anecdote refers to a speculation in India-stock by the two Burkes and Lord Verney, which at last failed; when William Burke and Lord Verney were announced as defaulters, and Edmund Burke's name was kept concealed.

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In the chapter devoted to the character of Mr. Burke, Mr. Nicholls gives, we fear, a more just view of that extraordinary man than the idolaters of his genius would wish or can well believe to have belonged to him. We extract the section :

‘ I may perhaps be thought to have spoken in some places with too much severity of Mr. Edmund Burke. My acquaintance with this gentleman began about the year 1780. My intercourse with him impressed me with the highest idea of his political erudition. I say nothing of his abilities: my opinion of him on that head is the same as is generally entertained, viz. that he had great powers, with very little judgment. I never had any personal difference with him: at the commencement of our intercourse my admiration of him was great; it gradually diminished into disapprobation of his measures, and disapprobation gradually increased into disesteem. In the autumn, 1781, when it was visible, that the nation was every day becoming more tired of the American war, and that Lord North would be obliged to relinquish it, I was very anxious to see union established between the friends of the Marquis of Rockingham and those of the Earl of Shelburne. The friends of the Earl of Shelburne professed to wish it, and I firmly believe that they were sincere. This union was prevented by Mr. Burke; the consequences of the continuance of disunion sufficiently appeared on the formation of the cabinet of eleven in the ensuing spring. During the three months that Lord Rockingham was minister, in 1782, I saw much in Mr. Burke's conduct which I disapproved; on the death of that noble Marquis, the separation between Mr. Fox and the Earl of Shelburne was effected solely by the efforts of Mr. Burke. Mr. Fox was a man of kindness: malice seemed to me not to enter into his composition; and I am very certain that he had no ill will to the Earl of Shelburne, even down to the hour of the Marquis of Rockingham's death.

‘ When the separation between the friends of the deceased Marquis and the Earl of Shelburne took place, there was a meeting of the Rockinghams at Earl Fitzwilliam's; and at this meeting, Mr. Burke spoke of the Earl of Shelburne in terms so coarse and unmeasured as to preclude all possibility of reconciliation. When the Rockinghams and Shelburnes had separated, there existed three political parties, viz. Lord North's, the late Lord Rockingham's, and the Earl of Shelburne's. It was obvious, that whichever two of these parties joined, they would be too powerful in the House of Commons for the third. It may therefore be supposed, that when Mr. Burke prevailed on the Rockinghams to separate from Lord Shelburne, he had in view a union between the Rockinghams and Lord North; but I do not believe that he at that time had any such idea. The Duke of Richmond was very earnest, that the Earl of Shelburne should be prime minister, and that he himself should be considered as the head of the Rockingham party. But this was extremely disagreeable to Mr. Burke. He knew that he had no influence over the Duke of Richmond; and it was Mr. Burke's wish that the Duke of Portland should be brought

brought from Ireland, and proclaimed chief of the late Marquis's friends. He urged this arrangement, because he knew that the Duke of Portland would be entirely under his guidance; and he sacrificed the political strength of his party to his own personal wishes.

William Eden was the *mezzano*, who effected the coalition between Lord North and Mr. Fox; or, as the late Duke of Norfolk, while Earl of Surrey, expressed it in the House of Commons, "he was the priest who married us." During the nine months in 1783, that the Coalitionists were in possession of the administration, they were wholly under the guidance of Mr. Burke. His arrogance was sufficiently disgusting. He ultimately ruined them by his India Bill. It was much to be regretted, that when the Marquis of Rockingham came into office in 1765, his inexperience in public business should have made it necessary that he should have about him a person who might act as his guide. I believe Mr. Burke was a very proper person for the situation. For his failings did not perhaps at that time exist. They grew up afterwards gradually, as their growth was encouraged by the occasion. While the Duke of Portland was first Lord of the Treasury, Mr. Burke's influence was more authoritative than it had been during the life of the Marquis of Rockingham. For Lord Rockingham, when he would venture to do it, was capable of thinking for himself.

When Mr. Burke brought forward his accusation against Mr. Hastings, he solicited me to support him. In the course of our discussion, he told me, that if I declined supporting him, I must relinquish the friendship of the Duke of Portland; and my connection with Mr. Burke, as well as with the Duke of Portland, was from that hour terminated. While Mr. Burke was the guide of the Marquis of Rockingham and of the Duke of Portland, he inculcated more openly than ever had been done before, "that every man ought to be enlisted in a party: that a member of the House of Commons ought not to consider the merit of the question immediately before the House: that he should only consider whether he wished the minister to remain in office, or that his rivals should take his place." He inculcated this doctrine both in his speeches and his pamphlets: it always appeared to me a doctrine highly unconstitutional; but it served the views of Mr. Burke, as it recommended him to the leaders of his party; for he accompanied the doctrine with this addition, "that as the ancestors of those leaders had placed the Brunswicks on the throne, they had a right to be the ministers, and to dictate the political measures which should be pursued."

But the great injury, which Mr. Burke did to his country, was by preaching the crusade against French principles. He was emphatically the *Peter the Hermit*, who preached up this holy war. I consider this as the great measure of his life, and if I have ever spoken of him with harshness, my language has been the result of my feelings on this subject. The French Revolution, at its very commencement, excited great alarm in the minds of princes and nobles.

nobles, especially of German princes. It is well known that George III. did not conceal his opinion on this head. Mr. Burke expressed his disapprobation of the French Revolution at an early period: his language gradually became more violent: he professed to wish to excite all parties. Not only all parties, but every religious sect in the British empire was called on to exert itself. He did not confine himself to the limits of Great Britain and Ireland; he endeavoured to rouse every part of the Continent. His son was sent to a meeting of princes and ministers at Coblenz. The Emperor Leopold and the King of Prussia were excited by Mr. Burke's publications. In a word, he left no means unemployed to inflame the whole of Europe to the adoption of his opinion. The German princes were the first who were prevailed on to move. I believe that Prince Kaunitz, the prime minister of the Emperor Leopold, dissuaded his master from undertaking a war against France. The Emperor Joseph had left several parts of his dominions in a state of agitation; particularly the Netherlands, and Hungary. The Empress Maria Theresa had been much beloved in the Netherlands; but the Emperor Joseph, her son, had contrived to set the monastic orders and the nobles in that country against him. Their discontent had led them to take arms; but on the death of the Emperor Joseph, his successor Leopold found means to appease them. Much ill humour, however, still remained among them. Matters were not much better in Hungary, where the Emperor Joseph had much disgusted the nobles. Prince Kaunitz thought it would be more advantageous to the Emperor Leopold to regain the affections of his discontented subjects, than to embark in a war with France. But this wise minister was overruled: war was resolved on; and the King of Prussia became the ally of the Emperor. Mr. Burke seems to have had more difficulty in England. He at length prevailed on the party of the great Whig families to declare for war. But Mr. Pitt hesitated. He yielded at last with reluctance. But though he consented that war should be undertaken, he does not appear ever to have adopted Mr. Burke's opinion as to the motive for the war. Mr. Burke's opinion was, that war should be undertaken to re-establish France exactly in that state in which it had existed before the commencement of the Revolution; or, according to the technical language of that day, to re-establish the *ancien regime*. Mr. Pitt viewed it as a political war; the object with him was a diminution of the power of France. The two objects were inconsistent with each other. The crusade has lasted nearly thirty years. Europe has already suffered much; and I fear her sufferings are not at an end.

Mr. Nicholls enters much into the details of our war with France in various portions of his volume. As to the results, he observes very justly that, after a struggle of twenty-seven years, we find ourselves burdened with taxes which we can scarcely bear, while the French have obtained the grand objects of their Revolution, viz. the abolition of the privileges of the

the *noblesse*, of feudal services, of the power and wealth of the church, and have secured all their rights by the establishment of national representation. We agree with him also in the conclusion that any attempts made to destroy the present order of things in France would probably terminate in the expulsion of the Bourbons, and the destruction of the nobles:—but the *indirect* consequences of the French war on *other* countries are even more important than their direct results on this country and France. The exhausted exchequers of the old decrepid governments on the Continent,—the mixture of British notions arising from the intercourse of British armies,—the excitement of popular feeling and of patriotism, intended at first to operate merely against the usurpations of an invader,—the establishment of popular assemblies in some countries, and the discussion of civil rights in all,—have deeply sown the seeds of events, most of which still lie hidden in the womb of time, though the embryo forms of some have already burst forth to the astonishment of superficial observers. The antient despotisms must accommodate themselves to the increased intelligence and improved character of their subjects; and they would find it much wiser to ingraft, on their old institutions, securities for the general freedom and welfare of their communities, than to enter into “Holy Alliances” of misrule, and confederacies for the purpose of confronting tyranny against the march of knowledge. The habitual exercise of power, however, is not very favourable to prudence; and oppression is seldom checked by any other cause than the failure of its means, and its consequent incapacity to proceed. The two great contending parties are now at peace, and have both been sufficiently worn out by the late conflict: but, as at the end of the Peloponnesian war the cessation of the two principal states seemed only to give scope to the exertions of the rest, and their former onset to be but a prelude to the distractions and revolutions which ensued in the quarters of their former allies, and which wrought confusion throughout the connections and dependencies of every state that had formerly held communion either with Athens or with Sparta;—so we may well conjecture that we have hitherto witnessed little more than the direct results of the French war; and that such an alteration as we have seen effected in the balance of power in Europe, and in the characters of the different nations on the Continent, during the last thirty years, must eventually work out an important change in the constitutions of the different governments.—Mr. Nicholls gives us three short but excellent chapters on the consequences of the French Revolution and that of Spain, and on the duration of the papal power.

In a review of the character of the late Mr. Pitt, though we conceive that minister to have been rather a first-rate debater, financier, and manager of parties, than a statesman of the highest rank, we think that Mr. Nicholls somewhat depreciates his political abilities. He animadverts also very severely on the administration of Mr. Fox in 1806, and particularly censures the war with Prussia and the blockade of the Trave, the Elbe, the Weser, and the Ems. His observations on the term blockade, on the law of nations, and on the injustice as well as the impolicy of the Orders in Council, coincide with the sentiments which we have uniformly maintained.

Mr. Nicholls has compressed very considerable information into a small compass in the volume before us; and, as such is the result, we are not disposed to censure him for his short sentences, or that sort of abruptness which savours of the manners of the French writers. We think, however, that he discusses at too much length the impeachment of Mr. Hastings; a measure which he considers as impolitic and unjust: but his remarks on Mr. Pitt's motives for supporting that impeachment, and on the influence which he gained over the Opposition, particularly over Mr. Burke, by that means, are remarkably judicious. Mr. N. states that he lived in great personal intimacy with Mr. Dunning and Lord Thurlow, who were certainly two men of as opposite natures as could easily be found, and he can discover no reason why Mr. Fox treated Lord Thurlow with asperity, when the coalition-administration came into office: but it seems to us that Lord Thurlow, during the Rockingham administration, had been employed by George the Third to rule the cabinet, by siding at will either with the six Rockinghams or with the six Shelburnes; and, when the coalition came into power, Mr. Fox himself called on Lord Thurlow to resign the seals, because he recollected what his Lordship had already done, and understood his character.

The author offers also a laborious defence of his own suspense of judgment on the subject of the slave-trade; stating his opinion that gradual restrictions on that trade would have best effected its eventual abolition, and that the present abolition is merely nominal. We wish that our limits would allow us to enter into a discussion of his views on this point, as well as on the subject of a reform in Parliament, because we think that the arguments which he uses deserve much consideration: but we cannot say that we at present coincide in the conclusions which he forms in either case.

On the whole, we think that these 'Recollections and Reflections,' as well as Lord Waldegrave's 'Memoirs,' must prove abundantly entertaining to the general reader, and form a real acquisition to the writer who shall persevere in compiling a history of this country from the time of the Revolution; which is indeed a *desideratum* in our literature. They will be classed by him with the valuable labours of Mr. Archdeacon Coxe in his different Memoirs, with Lord Melcombe's Diary, and with Lord Orford's Reminiscences, as the sources which may give him an insight into the petty causes of great events, and help him to a knowledge of court-intrigues and the sober satire of state-affairs. In the comparison, also, which may be formed between the characters drawn by Lord W. and by Mr. N., the information and ideas of the latter will be corroborated by the personal knowledge and peculiar opportunities of the former.

In page 174. line 5. of Mr. Nicholls's work, an error in the punctuation makes a great difference in the sense. Speaking of Mr. Fox, it is said: 'He had not acquired much political knowledge. By patient reading and reflection, that political knowledge,' &c. The passage ought to run thus: He had not acquired much political knowledge by patient reading and reflection. That political knowledge, &c.

ART. X. *A Voyage to India.* By the Reverend James Cordiner, A.M., Author of "A Description of Ceylon*," and Minister of St. Paul's Chapel, Aberdeen. 8vo. pp. 308. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

THE author of this voyage is probably an agreeable table-companion, for he takes great pleasure in noticing the various dinners which preceded his departure, welcomed his arrival, and diversified his stay. Lists of the distinguished individuals, whose society he frequented, are perpetually occurring; and every opportunity is seized of bestowing that sort of social praise which is called a compliment. All this gives an air of trifling to a printed volume: but Mr. Cordiner's pages also contain some peculiar information concerning the state of Christianity in the East, which especially deserve the attention of missionary-societies. During a residence of five years in the island of Ceylon, Mr. C. officiated as chaplain in the government-house at Columbo, and was presented on his departure with a piece of plate, valued at two hundred guineas;

* See Rev. vol. lviii. p. 113.

together with a letter of testimonial and recommendation, by which the subscribing individuals evidently expected to obtain from the government at home some preferment in his behalf.

The voyage itself supplies few singularities of adventure, but perhaps the dinner of a lascar-crew has not before been delineated:

'I one day observed the lascars at dinner. Before they began to eat, the cook threw one or two ladle-fuls of rice into the sea, and, at the same time, repeated some words, which we concluded to be of the nature of a grace. They sat in circles, on their buttocks, upon deck. In the centre of each circle there was placed a large dish of boiled rice, and in the midst of the rice a small basin of salt fish curry. No spoons were used: each man helped himself with his right hand, and, by turning his fingers round, formed the rice which he took up into a ball, which he sometimes dipped among the curry, and sometimes swallowed without that seasoning. They eat with so much neatness, that they never dropped a grain of rice. Their countenances displayed all the joy which is visible in a set of hungry children sitting down to a feast.'

In the third chapter the author lands at Bombay, and describes the light-house, the church, the theatre, the dock, and the island of Elephanta. He praises the scenery, the harbour, the hospitality of the inhabitants, and a delicate fish called Bumbelo, which is dried for exportation. In the fourth chapter he reaches Madras, and is employed there as a teacher in the Military Male Orphan Asylum. A careful account is given of this and other schools:

'The number of my pupils,' says the author, 'was two hundred and eighty. The greater part of them were the orphans of non-commissioned officers and private soldiers, principally by native women, who were supported gratis; and the rest the natural children of officers, who paid three pagodas a month for the education and maintenance of each child. Only a very few of them were white: all the others were half-caste, and many of them very dark. The buildings where they were lodged and taught consisted of three large open sheds, constructed chiefly of wooden pillars, with tiled roofs. The same apartment formed their school-room, their banqueting-hall, and their bed-chamber; they eat their victuals at the same table at which they learned their tasks; the brick floor, the tables, and the benches, became their beds. Straw mats, indeed, were spread upon the floor, for the children to lie upon, but they never undressed; they had no bed-clothes, and many of them preferred lying upon the bare tables and benches, which afforded a situation a little elevated, freer air, and greater coolness. Their dress was of pure white calico, and very simple,

simple, consisting, in general, only of a shirt and trousers, which they shifted four times a week. On Sundays and holidays, when they went abroad, they were allowed the addition of sleeved waistcoats and leather caps. On similar occasions, some of the higher ranks of teachers were indulged with shoes; but no stockings were ever worn. Their principal food was rice, with a little seasoning, and every meal was nearly the same. As a luxury, on Sundays they had mutton-broth, and a morsel of bread. The vessels out of which they eat were small bowls of indurated clay, called by the children *mollies*; and the cook filled them from the pot, which he carried round the table in his hand. A certain number of china-spoons were served out to them at the beginning of every month; but these were soon broken, and the greater part of them afterwards eat with their hands alone. This practice they always preferred, having been accustomed to it from their infancy, and never having seen their mothers eat in any other manner.

Chapter V. relates to Madras, Fort St. George, the Black Town, the Mount Road, and the beautiful banqueting-house erected by Lord Clive in 1802. The exquisite plaster, or chunam, composed with a mixture of lime and refined sugar, is stated to form an enduring as well as beautiful stucco, and to answer the purpose of a marble flooring, which it is often made to resemble by staining. The following anecdote is told of Dr. Anderson: 'Sitting at table with the Marquis of Wellesley, he had the boldness to tell his Lordship, that the fall of Seringapatam was more owing to good luck than good management. The Marquis replied, that if he did not take care of his tongue, he would hang him. "*That*," he said, "would be very hard indeed, my Lord, after I have bestowed so much pains on the cultivation of hemp."

The military establishment of Hindostan is estimated at 163,700 regular troops of the line.

In the sixth chapter, the author passes into the island of Ceylon, and in the seventh relates his journey from Trincomalee to Columbo; in the course of which he halts on the bank of a river near Cockley, and thus depicts the children of nature who dwell in that district:

'The country here is open and well-aired, and the climate feels much cooler than at Trincomalee. The inhabitants too are of a lighter colour; the men stout and well-made, and some of the women very comely. All the people whom we saw looked uncommonly innocent and happy; they seemed to possess, in full enjoyment, every domestic comfort. Their cottages are neatly built, with wicker walls and straw roofs, and have nice gardens attached to them; their children are numerous, and of a very healthy and well-fed appearance; and while the inhabitants seem to want no addition to their happiness, they are willing to render every assistance to peaceable travellers. Into their religion I was not able to pene-

penetrate, and there appeared to be no provision for instruction or public worship of any kind: but I never before saw countenances I was so much pleased with; they appeared to be in reality what we, who call ourselves Christians, would wish to be; and genuine kindness was never any where better exemplified than in their attentions to us, and conduct to their families. We continued traversing the banks of the river, and enjoying the pleasantness of the scenery, until the setting sun warned us to seek protection among the cottages of Cockley, which were then two miles distant from us.'

The author's residence at Columbo forms the subject of Chapter VIII. Here the scarcity of Bibles is lamented. One native, who possessed a Cingalese Bible printed in 1730, was found reclining under the shade of a cocoa-nut-grove, and reading it to his son, who was about nine years old. The innocent freedom is noticed with which the inhabitants of Columbo, male and female, Dutch and native, bathe together in the lake; and accounts are given of the foundation of some schools at Columbo.

Chapter IX. treats of the state of Christianity in Ceylon, and of the auxiliary Bible-society there; narrates the visitation of a native school; and digresses into the great question of the expediency and practicability of converting the Hindoos. This is the most important section, but is too extensive for our limits. A sketch of the state of British India, by the Rev. Dr. James Bryce, is praised for soundness and liberality of view: it was printed at Calcutta in 1810.

The tenth chapter notices the arrival of two chaplains at Columbo; after which the author's services becoming superfluous, he determined to embark for England, and is now minister of St. Paul's Chapel at Aberdeen, from which city this volume makes its appearance. Mr. C. displays more than common geographical knowledge, and piety adorned by liberality.

ART. XI. *A Letter from George Webb Hall, Esq. &c. &c. to the Right Hon. Frederick John Robinson, President of the Board of Trade, on the Impolicy of the present Corn Laws, as affecting the general Industry of the United Kingdom.* 8vo. 1s. Sherwood and Co.

ONLY a month or two have elapsed since a jury had to decide a cause, in which seventy thousand pounds were involved, between the conflicting opinions of several gentlemen of the first chemical science in the kingdom, as to the greater or less risk of fire incurred by a new process, that

that proved fatal to the premises in which it was used. Mr. Justice Dallas, who presided, confessed his own incompetence to determine when the judgments of men of unquestioned science differed so diametrically from each other, and remarked: "I am not altogether unacquainted with the subject: I have read several chemical books; and I am free to acknowledge that I have read much more than I have been able to digest." — After so high an authority or *precedent* for diffidence in a matter of practical science, we can feel no sort of humiliation in confessing that, on a question of speculative policy, we have read much more than we are able to digest. Men of talents, and entirely unconnected either with the agricultural or the manufacturing interests, except as members of the community, have differed *toto cælo* about the policy of the corn-laws. Mr. Webb Hall is the indefatigable chairman of some agricultural associations; and, in a pamphlet which we noticed some time since*, he shewed that the manufacturing interests were protected against foreign competition by duties from ten to ninety per cent. on various articles, while the present corn-laws afford a very parsimonious assistance to the interests of agriculture: but he set down the import-duty on foreign corn as nothing; or, whatever protection it may afford agriculture, he considered it as balanced by the protection given to commerce by the navigation-act. This is much too vague: the navigation-act does not injure agriculture, though it may protect commerce; and it is contended that any farther protection to agriculture would essentially injure the interests of commerce.

We made a rough calculation of the actual tax paid to the growers of corn in this country by the consumers; assuming as a basis that, one year with another, foreign corn may be imported at two-thirds of the price for which that of our own growth sells. Thus; take the present average price of wheat in this country at 60 shillings a quarter: our supposition is that it may be imported at 40 shillings: then it is clear that every quarter of wheat which is consumed pays a tax of 20 shillings to the grower. Suppose that ten millions of quarters are consumed, (and this is probably short of the mark,) then agriculture is protected, or rather trade is burdened, by an annual tax of ten millions sterling on the wheat crop alone. In order to strengthen his case, Mr. Hall, in the present letter, has given more than we ask; and to paint the difficulties of the British farmer in stronger colours, he has here stated that foreign corn may be imported at *half* the price

* "Origin and Proceedings of the Agricultural Associations." See M. R. vol. xcii. p. 430.

required to grow it at home: on which assumption, the consumers are now paying 15 millions sterling, instead of ten, to the agriculturists. The case, however, does not rest here; for the British farmer is protected against foreign competition till the average price of wheat is 80 shillings per quarter. Allowing, then, that it can be imported at *half price*, the consumers pay a tax to the British farmer of twenty millions sterling for the ten millions of quarters consumed at that price. We must even go farther yet. Barley is protected against foreign competition up to 40 shillings per quarter, rye up to 53 shillings, and oats up to 27 shillings. We do not pretend to know the precise annual consumption of these articles, but altogether they may surely be taken at 25 millions of quarters; and these, we presume, may also be imported at half the price which the British consumer is actually forced to pay for them to the British grower. As by far the greatest consumption is that of oats, we will take the average price of the three, one year with another, at 30 shillings. The consumer, then, in addition to 15 millions sterling on wheat, taking the medium price, pays 15 shillings per quarter on 25 millions of quarters of other grain, which is 18,750,000*l.*, forming a tremendous total of 33,750,000*l.*! We say nothing about the duty on foreign wool, for the purpose of protecting the agricultural interest which has already shut out our bombazeens, stuffs, &c. from Spain, by a very recent decree of the Cortes; and which has likewise transferred to countries on the Continent the clothing for the Russian army: — we say nothing about these injuries inflicted on the manufacturing interest, to support those of the British farmer, because we are persuaded that they will eventually confer no sort of benefit on the latter whatever. Not having a market for the manufactured articles, the demand for the raw material is lessened; and, in point of fact, the price of wool not only is falling every day, but has fallen 30 per cent. within the last six months.

Still, all will not do: the farmers are asking for farther protection*; and the fact is beyond all question that they are sinking into the very earth to which they look for support. Then let us, for a moment, attend to the agricultural side of the question. We firmly believe that the whole agricultural rental of the kingdom is sunken for this year, and that it was sunken for the last year likewise. To avoid misconception, however, we must be more explicit. Let us take the kingdom throughout, good land and bad, during the last and the current year;

* See the stand just now made by the landed interest against Government, in effecting a repeal of the tax on agricultural horses.
and

and we say that the entire revenue of the British farmer, arising from his land, is exhausted in maintaining himself, in paying the interest of the capital engaged in his business, in paying his taxes, tythe, labourers, poor-rates, and the county, road, and parochial assessments; and consequently that he has nothing left, from the mere produce of his farm, with which to pay his landlord's rent. The case will appear stronger if we descend to particulars. The present import-price of corn was grounded on the most satisfactory proofs before a Committee of the House of Commons, in 1815, that, with an average-crop, the British farmer cannot afford to sell his wheat under 10s. per bushel, and his barley under 5s. &c.: but the average price of wheat has lately been 7s. 6d. per bushel, and of barley 3s.; and consequently the farmer loses 2s. 6d. on every bushel of wheat, and 2s. on every bushel of barley, which he sells. The rent of land, it is true, depends on a great variety of circumstances: but, *ceteris paribus*, it is regulated by the degree of its fertility. Land that yields 20 bushels of wheat may be supposed to yield 40 bushels of barley per acre; and such land perhaps lets at 25s. per acre, which is a high rent for it: while land that produces 25 bushels of wheat, and 50 of barley, lets at 30s. per acre, and so on. If these postulates are granted, the farmer who grows 20 bushels of wheat on an acre, and sells his crop at 7s. 6d. instead of 10s. per bushel, loses twenty half-crowns or 50 shillings on an acre; viz. *double his rent*. If he grows 40 bushels of barley, and sells his crop at 3s. instead of 5s. per bushel, he loses forty times two shillings, or 4l. per acre; *more than three times his rent*. An apparent fallacy may be observed in this calculation; viz. that the more bushels of wheat or barley a farmer grows per acre, the more money he *seems* to lose, because we have multiplied the number of bushels by the difference between the import-price (which, it must not be forgotten, is the *minimum* at which he can grow it,) and the actual price at which he is now selling it. The more bushels he grows, therefore, the more he *seems* to lose. The fallacy, however, is only apparent, not real. Redundant produce is the only compensation for deficient price. The import-price is grounded on the average-produce, compared with the average-expenditure of production. If land yields 20 bushels of wheat, on the preceding calculation there is an apparent loss of 20 half-crowns, or 2l. 10s. per acre; but there is an actual return of 20 times 7s. 6d., or 7l. 10s. If the same land yields only 15 bushels of wheat, the *apparent* loss is only 15 half-crowns, or 1l. 17s. 6d.: but the actual return in this case is only 15 times 7s. 6d., or 5l. 12s. 6d.; making a difference, in favour of the former, of 2l. per acre: more than a rent and a half. If much more than the entire rent be sunken on that
portion

portion of an *arable* farm on which the crops of corn are grown, it will hardly be contended that the other portion, on which are grown the crops of hay and turnips, &c., compensates for the loss. Grazing, for a long time past, and at the present moment, is not more profitable, or to speak more correctly, is not less ruinous, than growing corn. We cannot feel, then, that we are guilty of exaggeration in stating that the whole agricultural rental of the kingdom will be sunken in this year, and that it was sunken in the last year: indeed we might safely have gone much farther. This state of things cannot continue long. Land of inferior quality will be thrown out of cultivation first; that of a better description will succeed; till that portion only will remain under the plough which is of the highest fertility, and is capable of at least reimbursing the expence bestowed on it.

As a general principle, the unrestricted freedom of intercourse among commercial nations has been often advocated by us; and indeed it cannot be doubted, if entire freedom of exportation and importation were allowed to all, that each would direct its attention to those products, both natural and artificial, which soil, climate, superior machinery, science, and any favourable local circumstances, enable it to bring to market with the least labour and capital. Those countries which can raise corn with the least expence would supply others in which its production is more costly; and they would receive from such others, in exchange, wines, oils, silks, cottons, worsteds, iron, raw commodities, and such manufactured articles as superior machinery and skill enable them to prepare for market at a lower expence of labour and of capital. — Nevertheless, although we are fully aware of the importance of general principles in political economy, we cannot, without shuddering, contemplate the re-conversion of our cultured fields into naked heaths, unwholesome swamps, and forests, for the wild boar, the fox, and once again the native wolf.

“ Right o’er-rigid hardens into wrong,”

says Pope; and we would much rather deviate from a general principle than obstinately adhere to it at the expence of justice and public utility: which, after all, must be the test of its truth. *Their* mandates are imperative; and we should hold it to be a much greater inconsistency to disobey them than to deviate, under peculiar circumstances, from a general principle which we had before supported in political economy.

In wishing, however, to save the agricultural interest of the kingdom from positive and impending ruin by some effectual and permanent relief, we are not called to sacrifice either a
general

general principle or the least particle of consistency. Mr. Hall truly observes that the whole system of British commerce and manufactures — and he should have added *foreign* commerce and manufactures also — is founded on monopoly and legislation. These islands are almost hermetically sealed against the reception of every thing which our merchants can transport or our manufactures can create, without coming through their hands, and paying them such a tribute from the consumers as such a limited supply, and the demand for the several articles in which they deal, may enable them to collect. The prohibitory duties by which merchants and manufacturers are protected in their capitals may justify, or rather make necessary, to a certain extent, countervailing duties for protecting the capitals of the cultivators of the soil. What is that extent? The standard of protection on all the productions of the soil is the difference of expence at which they can be raised in foreign parts and in this country; and nothing short of countervailing duties equal in amount to this difference, it is contended by Mr. Hall, can support the agriculture of this country. Is the agriculture of the kingdom worth protection on such terms, and, if it is, would such terms protect it? To answer the first question, we must calculate its relative importance to the state, both as to capital and as to the number of persons employed, when compared with trade, &c. First, as to capital: in the year 1815, the total assessments for the property-tax on trades and professions amounted to two millions sterling; and the assessments on land for the same year amounted *very nearly* to six millions and a half. The following comparative statements were likewise printed by the House of Commons, March, 1816:

Number of Persons.		Number of Persons.		
1.	Occupiers of land under 50l. per an.	114,788	1. Persons in trade and professions under 50l. a year,	100,760
2.	Ditto from 50l. to 150l. per an. - -	432,534	2. Ditto above 50l. and under 150l.	117,306
3.	Ditto above 150l. per an. - -	42,062	3. Ditto from 150l. to 1000l. - -	31,928
Total,		589,384	4. Ditto from 1000l. and upwards, -	5,692
			Total,	253,686

Here we have apparently more than three times the amount of capital, and more than twice the number of capitalists, employed in agriculture than are employed in trade and professions.

sions. It has been stated that so vast is the amount of the agricultural productions of the country, that the reduction of only one shilling per bushel in the price of wheat, *by import*, produces a deficiency in the returns to the growers on that article alone of five millions sterling. Not so when the reduction is occasioned by an abundant harvest, because additional quantity compensates for reduced price. In a former pamphlet, Mr. Hall calculated the agricultural rental of the kingdom in the years 1813 and 1814 at forty millions sterling; and the expences of labour at an equal sum. He also estimated the cultivators of the soil of the United Kingdom, and those who are dependent on them for employment and subsistence, at seven millions of persons. Colquhoun, in his "Treatise on the Wealth, &c. of the British Empire," published several years ago, reckoned the total of cultivated land in England and Wales at 30,620,000 acres;

The value of which he calculated at	£750,400,000
Lands cultivated in Scotland, estimated at one-fifth,	150,080,000
Lands cultivated in Ireland, estimated at two-fifths,	300,160,000

Making a total for the United Kingdom of £1200,640,000

Supposing land to have produced 4 per cent. at that time, we have here a rental of more than forty-eight millions sterling. Mr. Hall, then, is perhaps within bounds. — From returns to the Tax Office for the year ending April 5. 1804, the rental of real property in *England and Wales only*, including mines, canals, &c. was calculated on 37,334,400 statute acres, and amounted to thirty-eight millions sterling. Colquhoun reckoned that the agriculture of the United Kingdom, ten years ago, gave employment and support to five millions and a half of persons; and he computed the property created in one year, by the cultivation of the land, at 216,817,624l. In 1802, the value of corn and flour imported amounted to ten millions sterling, which was little more than a single month's consumption; in 1810, the value of corn, &c. imported amounted to something short of five millions. Mr. Hall's statements are by no means extravagant if compared with Mr. Colquhoun: but we pretend not to vouch for the accuracy of either. It is probable, however, that very few of our readers have formed the slightest conception that such a vast preponderance of capital and such a numerical majority of people are closely connected, and stand or fall, with the agriculture of the kingdom: but, if there be any thing like an approximation even to correctness in these statements, the question of protection becomes

comes extremely simplified. If the agricultural and manufacturing interests are incompatible and opposite, which must yield to the other? Clearly that which is of least value, and the minority must yield to the majority:—but are these interests repugnant to each other? Decidedly not. The home-trade for the commerce and manufactures of the country is said to be at the least three-fourths of the whole. It can never, then, be for the interest of the manufacturer or the merchant to impoverish his best, most numerous, and most opulent customers. If the agriculture of the country should perish; its commerce and manufactures will not long survive. When the cultivators of the soil, and their dependents for labour and subsistence, (to the number, we have seen, of many millions,) are disabled from purchasing the imports and manufactures of the country, where is the merchant or the manufacturer to look for his market? What have the cultivators to offer in exchange for their wares and merchandise?

‘Why, truly, nothing but the productions of their own soil which they have created. Now, if by import of similar foreign productions, duty free, from Russia, Poland, and other places, where land and labour are of less value than in this country, the merchants and manufacturers succeed in reducing the value of the productions of our own soil to a level, or nearly to a level, with those of Russia or of Poland, do they not see in a moment that they must at the same time reduce the wants, and the ability to supply those wants, of all our own cultivators, and their labourers, to a par with those of Russia and of Poland? The value of labour regulates the value of almost every property we can name.’

It is not unworthy of remark that the legislature, after having admitted on satisfactory evidence that wheat cannot, on an average of years and an average of crops, be grown in this country under 80s. per quarter, immediately fixed that as the price at which the ports are to be thrown open for unlimited foreign importation; also allowing foreign wheat to be imported and warehoused at all times before hand, *duty free*, ready to be poured into the market at a moment's warning. The legislature tells the farmers that they are at liberty to furnish the exclusive supply of the home-market with corn, as long as they are contented to lose money by it: but, as soon as the average-returns are one farthing above the *lowest* price at which they can afford to grow it, then the flood-gates are opened, and the British farmer is overwhelmed by an inundation of foreign corn. Mr. Hall, aptly enough, compares him to the Dutch felon who is placed in a cistern with an inlet of water, so nicely calculated to his strength that by his utmost labour

labour in pumping he may only for a time save himself from drowning, unless he be relieved.

Let us apply the principle to other things, says Mr. Hall. Withdraw the protection, for instance, which the Spitalfield weavers now receive from laws made in their favour, and they could no more compete with the silk manufacturers of Asia or France, in price, than the British farmer can cope with the Russian and the Polish. Apply also the principle of the 55 Geo. 3. c. 26. to the growth and importation of sugar, and the manufacture of hats. Let the *lowest* average price be ascertained by a select committee of the House of Commons, at which sugar can be grown and imported, and hats manufactured, in this country; and, whenever the price of either shall exceed that average by a single farthing, let the British market be thrown open to all the world: Who would embark capitals and erect factories under such regulations? Agriculture is not alone invulnerable.

Mr. Robinson made a strange statement in the House in May, 1820, when he asserted that the low price of corn at that time could not be attributed to the operation of the laws, because "no foreign corn had been imported since February, 1819, before which period he believed there was not a single quarter of foreign corn in the warehouses." He seems entirely to have overlooked the *bonded* warehouses; and Mr. Hall reminds him that, by the returns of imports laid before parliament,

'In the year which ended the 5th January, 1819, there were imported into this kingdom, *duty free*, the enormous quantities of 26,799,367 bushels of foreign corn and grain, and 24,751,749 pounds of foreign wool, at a duty of only one halfpenny and a fraction per pound: and that between the 5th day of January, 1819, and the 15th day of February following, the day the ports did close, being a period of 41 days more, there must have been imported *at least*, taking the import for these 41 days on the average of the whole year, three millions of bushels of corn and grain more; making in all, on hand in this country on the day the ports did close, full 30 millions of bushels of foreign corn and grain imported *duty free*; and which, on its landing before the 15th February, 1819, or being in sight of land on or before that day, became amalgamated with, and formed part and parcel of, our own corn and grain, and could be as freely sold in any of our own markets as any of our own productions, which, on their growth and production, contributed to all the taxes levied in this country. In this extraordinary import then is to be found the excess, which *has* caused that degradation in the value of grain, which *has* produced the degradation in the value of labour, and of property of every description, of which all complain, without ascribing it to its real cause.

It

It may be added that *our bonded warehouses have long been groaning under the weight of foreign corn.* — The object of the agriculturists is to obtain 'countervailing duties on all the productions of our soil, equal to the difference in value between this country and poorer nations.'

'Grant but this,' say they, 'and the British merchants and manufacturers will find far better customers, in *price and payment*, for every thing they can produce, than all the world besides can furnish them; they have had the fairest experiment upon earth in the converse of this proposition during the last six years; and surely common candour, common justice, and sound policy, ought to impel them now to join in applying to you and to the legislature, to try the experiment of a counter-proposition for the next six years; and if it shall fail of creating industry, and prosperity, unknown before, to every corner of the United Kingdom, and in every branch of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, in God's name let such protection be forthwith repealed; but in the present stagnation of every branch of industry, surely the experiment is worth the trial.'

We have omitted to mention that Mr. Hall complains of the incorrect *averages* which are returned of the price of corn; and he says that, except in the port of London, scarcely one half of the corn sold and consumed is returned at all: in Bristol, not one-twentieth part of it! We believe that no doubt can be entertained about the imperfections and partialities of the returns; and that *the evil is beyond all remedy*, unless the inspector with his own eyes examines, every market day, the sales and purchases of every corn-buyer in the kingdom, which never can be done, and to which we ought never to submit. Even if it were done, who is to answer for the fidelity of the inspector himself? — To another circumstance Mr. Hall has not adverted; viz. that a very large quantity of inferior corn never goes into the market; not merely barley, and oats, and peas, and beans, but wheat likewise. Indeed there is such a superabundance of good corn, that scarcely any price would now be offered for that of an ordinary description. The consequence must be that the return of prices is taken exclusively from that which sells the highest, and not from the average price of the whole quantity grown; which probably the legislature contemplated. It is well known that bullocks, hogs, poultry, &c. are fattened on inferior corn, ground down for the purpose; and that a great deal more is used for seed.

In reply to the *second* question, we confess that we have great doubts whether such countervailing duties as Mr. Hall requires would afford that effectual and permanent relief to
agri-

agriculture which he expects ; which agriculture requires for its very existence ; and which it is the interest of trade and commerce to give, even at an immediate sacrifice, rather than witness the ruin which now threatens it. Although the bonded warehouses are now laden with foreign corn, there has been none thrown into the market for the last twelve months, except oats. If the import-price of wheat were raised from 80 to 160 shillings, it would make no difference in that of the home-produce till such produce was found insufficient for the demand ; and, even then, the difference between the present price and the artificial price so created would not be *all* clear gain, because an increase would immediately follow in the price of labour, and an increase of the poor's rate. One evil may require the application of another to neutralize it, but all *protecting* duties, as they are misnamed, are bad : the British farmer is suffering, not because his productions are too low, but because the expence of producing them is too high. Mars himself was held in chains by two enormous giants, Otus and Ephialtes ; and agriculture is now held in chains by two giants still more terrible, taxation and poor's rate. It is from them that relief must be sought, and agriculture will soon perish if it does not obtain it. In the conversion of barley into malt, we have to pay a duty of considerably more than a hundred per cent. on the cost of the original article : for the price of a quarter of barley is now (or was lately) 24 shillings, and the duty on malt made from it is 28 shillings. If the cost of production be lowered, we shall be able to compete with the foreigner in our own markets, without any importation-duties : but this can be effected only by economizing the public expenditure ; and we really cannot perceive much chance of this being accomplished in the present disposition of our rulers, on any scale of truly operative power, and with any determination of honest and hearty good will.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR JUNE, 1821.

MEDICINE.

Art. 12. *An Inquiry into the Effects produced on the Brain, Lungs, and other Viscera, and on the Nervous System, by Diseases of the Liver.* By Thomas Mills, M.D. 8vo. pp. 107. Printed at Dublin, and sold in London by Underwood.

The very great importance of the liver to the health of the general system of the human body has been long acknowledged by medical

medical men; and with some individuals it has so occupied the mind as to shut out almost entirely the consideration of other organs, and the diseases to which they are subject. A late physician of this metropolis, distinguished both by talents and experience, afforded a remarkable instance of the manner in which this important gland may be brought incessantly into view, and a mercurial treatment adopted in cases where it was unnecessary and even injurious. We ought to be on our guard, therefore, against falling into so dangerous an error. Perhaps we are warranted in asserting that no viscus in the whole body exerts a more powerful influence over the general health, than that which is now under consideration; and we feel therefore much indebted to any author who points out to us the multiplied sympathies and connections, by which it draws into the vortex of its deranged functions various parts of the frame, altogether distinct and of a different structure. Dr. Mills, in the small work before us, has brought together many cases of diversified disease, originating, as he believes, in the disordered functions of the liver. To discuss them at length would occupy a greater portion of our pages than we can dedicate to that purpose: but we may state generally that they afford evidence of much discrimination and judgment in his practice, whatever opinion we may form of the absolute existence of true hepatic derangement in all of the cases which he relates. In some of them, the liver seems to have been affected merely in connection with the general disorder of the chylopoietic functions; and we apprehend that the removal of a torpid and loaded state of the bowels, in many of them, accomplished more than the mercurial remedies which were given with a view to a supposed obstruction of the liver.

The doctrines promulgated several years ago by Mr. Abernethy have been so generally received and adopted by practitioners, that it is unnecessary here to do more than advert to the important advantages resulting from a careful attention to the organs of digestion. Dr. James Hamilton, of Edinburgh, has also pointed out successfully the very extended controul of the alimentary canal over various morbid states of the frame. In the cases detailed by Dr. Mills, the use of purgatives (calomel, with the compound colocynth pill, and cathartic draughts,) is almost generally combined with copious detraction of blood by leeches from the region of the liver, and frequently with blisters applied to the same part. Of this practice we must express our high approbation: but it is to the free unloading of the bowels that we principally ascribe the author's success. Among these cases, is one of abscess of the liver which burst into the lungs through the diaphragm, and afterward discharged itself by an opening between the third and fourth false ribs. Such cases are to be found not unfrequently in the records of medicine: but they do not seem to enter properly into the plan of Dr. M.; whose wish is to point out the morbid sympathies of distinct and remote parts with the liver, not instances of the continuous extension of inflammatory disease.—Several interesting cases are also given of derangement of the uterine system, in which a cure was happily effected by attention to the functions of

the liver, and of the organs of digestion. In some, however, particularly those of affections of the brain, and of gout, we were unable to discover that connection with diseased liver to which Dr. M. is disposed to ascribe the origin of the complaint.

Although this tract cannot be said to contain any practical views altogether new, it presents many valuable facts in proof of the widely extended influence of the hepatic system on the health of other organs; and altogether it deserves the perusal of professional men.

Art. 13. *Observations on the Nature and Cure of Glandular Diseases*, especially those denominated Cancer, and on the too frequent Use of Mercury: strongly recommended to the serious Consideration of every Individual: with a Detail of various Cases in which Cancer has been completely removed without the Use of the Knife; and, in an Appendix, Two Cases: 1. Of Fissure of the Cranium. 2. Of Preternatural Enlargement of the Heart. By Charles Aldis, Surgeon and Accoucheur, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, Senior Surgeon of the New Finsbury Dispensary, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 116. 4s. 6d. sewed. Callow. 1820.

We cannot express our approbation of this gentleman's conduct, in claiming from the public any degree of confidence in a secret mode of treatment; and, whatever success he may have had in this melancholy disease, we cannot attach much importance to the cases here detailed, because we are not entirely satisfied that the affections were truly cancerous: nor are we informed what were the remedies applied, either to the local disease or to the distempered constitution. From some hints, however, thrown out in the course of the work, and from an accompanying plate, representing the progress of the case under treatment, we imagine that the author's mode is neither more nor less than the old plan of applying a caustic to the tumour, by which means the schirrous mass is made to slough out; a method which, we have no doubt, may sometimes succeed. In p. 70. we have an instance of a patient in whom both breasts were affected in succession with schirrus: on the first the usual operation by the knife was performed by Mr. Cooper; while the second was treated on the plan of extraction, as the present writer terms it, or rather of sloughing; and both are stated to have succeeded. The author, however, has the boldness to say at the close of this case; 'From the success which attended this case, *I am warranted* in the belief, that had the same plan been adopted with the other tumour, (that which was amputated by Mr. Cooper,) the result would have been equally favourable; and indeed it is more than probable that, by saving the one breast, the subsequent affection would not have occurred.' (P. 72.) In the same strain he asserts, at the conclusion of another case of a somewhat different character; 'I have reason to suppose that, had I seen her at an early stage of the disorder, (cancer of the rectum,) she would have recovered.' (P. 95.)

The censure poured out by the author on the employment of mercury in general, his extreme horror of the knife, and his ridicule

cule of the treatment of cancer by compression, serve rather to injure him in our opinion. We observe also a studied obscurity, and an affectation of language, in several parts of this publication, which assimilate it somewhat to productions that we need not name. (See pp. 10, 11, 12. 22.) We have looked in vain through every part of the pamphlet, for some satisfactory reason to explain why a member of the Royal College of Surgeons, and the surgeon of a public dispensary, should adopt secret modes of practice: though he declares, indeed, that he obtained possession of the secret in absolute confidence, p. 50., and expresses rather a singular opinion to account for his secrecy. 'The publication of any formula as a direction in the treatment of cancerous complaints, would, I conceive, be productive of no essential benefit, and might be the means of encouraging injudicious practices.' (P. 98.) This is surely not the language which we ought to expect from a well-informed and liberal member of the profession.

With respect to the cases added in an appendix: the first is an account of fissure of the skull, with concussion, not compression, of the brain, as the author is inclined to believe; and the second is an instance of hypertrophy of the heart, with ossification of the valves, and obliteration of the cavity of the pericardium by adhesion.

NOVELS.

Art. 14. *Precaution*. 12mo. 3 Vols. 11. Boards. Colburn. 1821.

Although the plan of this novel may be regarded as good, yet it is not sufficiently developed to be useful. The disguise of Lord Pendennyss, and his supposition that Emily rejects him in consequence of that deception, are both void of probability; and the writer's verbal inaccuracies may be conjectured from the following specimens: Vol. i. p. 235., 'the distance *they had to go* was rode in silence;' p. 114., 'the interest of the peer *had began*;' p. 281., 'his eyes were fixed on the inanimate body which *laid by his side*.' Vol. ii. p. 25., 'alarmed lest the *draught* (draft) should increase;' p. 76., 'bring it about *before they leave here*;' p. 200., 'I had *began*;' p. 274., 'a look of drollery that *showed the Marquess a bit of a quiz*.' Vol. iii. p. 47., 'turning to the servants, the Earl said, *Answer the bell when called*;' p. 127., 'the figure of Pendennyss by her side reconciled her mind with a magnificence to which it was hitherto unacquainted: *he looked the Lord indeed*,' &c. &c.

It is really abominable to see, in such frequent instances, these daring defiances of common grammar issue from any decent press.

Art. 15. *Anston Park, a Tale*. By James Edmeston, Author of "Sacred Lyrics." 12mo. pp. 243. Boards. Holdsworth. 1821.

This is rather a strange little work, for it excites no interest and yet it displays some talent. The description of Mr. Rust's *Roman feast* is broadly humorous; and in p. 176. are some striking and forcible reflections on the battle of Waterloo: — but the

author's powers shine chiefly in poetry ; and, from among the various lyrical pieces which are here introduced, we may select the following specimen :

‘ THE BOX OF RELICS.

- ‘ Oh, raise not up that casket lid,
No riches there to tempt thee shine ;
No pilfered treasure there lies hid,
Nor glittering gem from Ormian mine :
Yet, dearer than the diamond's blaze,
To me those seeming trifles are ;
Memorials of departed days,
And wrecks of forms, tho' faded, fair.
- ‘ Remembrancers ... yet do not these,
Alone, diffuse this shadowy gloom ...
The evening walk, the favourite trees,
The empty seat, the vacant room :
These tell me, wheresoe'r I go,
There was a time, ... tho' now 'tis past ...
That once ... it was not always so ...
But that was far too bright to last !
- ‘ Yes, ... sightless to another's view,
To me, there lurks in many a place,
Beneath a heav'n of cloudless blue,
A shade, the sun can never chase :
And tho' afar should light, and day,
And ev'ry form I love, depart ;
From memory I can never stray,
Nor lull the thoughts that burn my heart..
- ‘ Yet might I close my aching eye,
And some short hours of respite steal ;
Tho' dreams of joy might waft them by,
I would not ... it is sweet to feel :
'Tis sweet to catch the seraph tone
Of love, ere yet the dream be fled ;
But sweeter far to sit alone,
And meditate upon the dead.'

POETRY.

Art. 16. *Trivial Poems, and Triolets ;* written in Obedience to Mrs. Tomkin's Commands. By Patrick Carey. 20th August, 1651. 4to. 18s. Boards. Murray. 1820.

As this may be considered in the light of a new book, it falls under the province of the reviewer. Patrick Carey, indeed, has very considerable merit ; and, no doubt, his verses were calculated to amuse and console himself and his brother-cavaliers, under the gloomy usurpations of the Long Parliament. He has manifested more thought in several of these little poems, than would be sufficient to furnish out a modern hot-pressed volume ; and he often employs a simplicity of language which clearly and pleasingly con-

veys the ideas of the writer. The faults are, an ample mixture of the *conchetto*, and an irregular and imperfect rhythm. With these abatements, most of the pieces in the book may be read with satisfaction: but some are rather paltry and ephemeral.

The indefatigable Sir Walter Scott has rescued these characteristic strains of the 17th century from oblivion: but we wish that they had been published in a little pocket form, since they deserve not only to complete the collection of the antiquary, but to be found on the shelves of every lover of poetry. The book (thin as it is) may be divided into two parts. The 'Trivial Poems' are chiefly love-verses, or drinking songs, or political squibs: the 'Triolets' are of a sacred character, and we think are much the best, on the whole: but we shall give our readers an extract from each division.

Perhaps the first of the ballads may be chosen as well as any other, to convey an idea of the style.

' To the Tune, — "*Once I lou'd a Mayden Fayre, &c.*"

' Fayre-one! if thus kind you be,
Yett intend a slaughter,
Fayth you'll loose your paynes with mee,
Else-where seeke hereafter:
Though your lookes bee sharp, and quicke,
Thincke not (pray) to drill me;
Loue, perchance, may make mee sicke,
But will never kill mee.

' Were my mistresse nere soe browne,
Yett, if kind, I'de prize her;
Who's most fayre, if she but frowne,
I shall soone dispize her:
I love kindnesse, and not face;
Who scornes mee, I hate her:
Courtesy gives much more grace,
In my mind, then feature.

' Red and white adorne the cheek
Lesse by farre, then smiling;
That's the beauty I most seeke,
That charme's most beguiling.
Fayre-one! now you know my mind,
See if th' humour take you;
I shall love you, whilst y'are kind;
When y'are not, forsake you.'

We confess, however, that we are more reminded of Waller's metre than of his point and elegance, by this little poem.

From the more serious portion of the volume we select the following:

' Whilst I beheld the necke o' th' doue,
I spy'de, and read these words.
This pritty dye
Which takes your eye,

Is not at all the bird's.

The dusky rauen might

Haue with these colours pleas'd your sight,

Had God but chose soe to ordayne aboue;

This labell wore the doue.

Whilst I admir'd the nightingale,

These notes she warbled o're.

Noe melody

Indeed haue I,

Admire mee then noe more;

God has itt in his choice

To giue the owle, or mee this uoyce;

'Tis Hee, 'tis Hee that makes mee tell my tale;

This sang the nightingale.

I smelt and prays'd the fragrant rose,

Blushing, thus answer'd she.

The prayse you gaue,

The sent I haue,

Doe not belong to mee;

This harmelesse odour, none

But only God indeed does owne;

To bee his keepers, my poore leaues hee chose;

And thus reply'de the rose.

I tooke the honny from the bee,

On th' bagge these words were seene.

More sweet than this

Perchance nought is,

Yett gall itt might haue been:

If God it should soe please,

Hee could still make itt such with ease;

And as well gall to honny change can Hee;

This learn't I of the bee.

I touch'd, and lik'd the downe o' th' swanne;

But felt these words there writt.

Bristles, thornes, here

I soone should beare,

Did God ordayne but itt;

If my downe to thy touch

Seeme soft and smooth, God made itt such

Giue more, or take all this away, Hee can;

This was I taught by th' swan.

All creatures then confesse to God

That th' owe him all, but I.

My senses find

True, what my mind

Would still, oft does deny.

Hence Pride! out of my soule!

O're itt thou shalt noe more controule:

I'll learne this lesson, and escape the rod;

I too haue all from God.

A strong

A strong vein of piety distinguishes many others of the religious productions. That which begins,

‘ Great God ! I had been nothing but for thee,’

has very fine passages in it, and a lofty strain of grateful enthusiasm pervades the whole. This is the true tone of devout poetry.

The “ *Dies iræ, Dies illa*,” on which several poets have ventured, is not ill rendered ; and, altogether, Carey is certainly as pious and perhaps as poetical as any of his rivals,

Art. 17. *Rouge et Noir*, in Six Cantos ; Versailles, and other Poems. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Ollier. 1821.

In the striking little preface to this volume, the author describes the extraordinary fascination of the game of *Rouge et Noir*. The suppressed agitation, the speaking eye, the flushed cheek, the under-breathed “ *sacre Dieu*,” &c. &c., are all crowned with instances of suicide, caused by this enchanting atrocity of gambling. Doubtless there must be some diabolical magic in that vice, which belongs equally to the savage and the civilized ; which delivers the wild German of the woods into slavery in the one æra, and calmly blows out the brains of the polished Parisian in the other ; which gives, in a word, to the *sketches* of a Tacitus most curious interest, and equally adorns the *annals* of Pall Mall or the *Palais Royal*. Bonaparte, we have heard, and the author informs us, p. 23., was accustomed to ask whether such and such officers were able to win at *Rouge et Noir* ? This was inquired, we conclude, as a test of the person’s temper as well as talent ; for the game is not only most difficult and mysterious in the whole of its combinations and calculations, but it also is so intoxicating to the gambler, that more than the usual coolness of the most experienced is required to resist it :—so that a good deal was implied in this question of Bonaparte.

Many good passages occur in this book, although they are often marred by a coarseness of style or conception. For instance ;

‘ Such is the blighted slave whose life hath passed,
Heartless and hardened, in this atmosphere :
A being by his demon-passion cast
Like Cain from social haunts, and all that’s dear ;
Without one human feeling to the last,
Beyond that avarice which drags him here :
Till, like a bar consumed by inward rust,
The heart, before the frame, is turned to dust.’

This is energetic, assuredly ; and the following has its merit — the merit of strong description :

‘ Away with trifling ! I have just retraced
My steps to *Place de Grève*’s dark square, and seen
A tall, undaunted youth his life-blood waste
Beneath the all-atoning guillotine :
The sun shone out unfeelingly, and chased
Those clouds that better had become the scene ;

And thousands, thousands thronged to see him die —
Jests on their lip and laughter in their eye!

‘ And there I marked, by heaven! a father raise
His little child above the crowd, as tho’
He sought to sear the startled infant’s gaze,
That bane and bloodshed with its growth might grow —
Or freeze, at once, that precious fount which plays
When pity bids the heart and eye o’erflow!
I noted well the sallow villain’s air,
And read of revolution, horrors there.

‘ The fettered victim in a cart came on:
An aged priest prayed by him; but the prayer
Passed to the winds; tho’, ever and anon,
A crucifix was laid upon his sear
White lip — he felt it not; for, wild and wan,
His eye dilated round the crowded square:
At last, with feverish gesture, quicker breath,
He fixed it on the instrument of death.

‘ The hurdle paused. He rose with every nerve
Braced to die firmly; mounted on the stage —
Methought I saw him then begin to swerve —
’Twas I that shook! His features were a page
Where passion, it was easy to observe,
Had written much. He said his father’s age
Must now be brought with sorrow to the grave —
For he had scorned the counsels which he gave.

‘ He said he was a soldier — and, tho’ young,
Had bled for France upon the battle-field,
Led by the Imperial bird: had fought among
Those legions that made trembling Europe yield:
And that uncurbed and reckless passions stung
His heart to madness ere his crime was sealed.
Bade those who saw him die, forget the name
Of one who brought his father’s house to shame.

‘ His words were firm, tho’ hurried — spoke as men
With little time, and much to utter, spake:
His troubled eye ran round the square again,
As if one last, brief, farewell look, to take.
They laid him on his bloody pillow then —
The blade descended — one convulsive shake —
And, as the naked spirit left its hold,
His severed head along the scaffold rolled!’

Enough of ‘ *Rouge et Noir*.’ We could point out several of-
fensive passages: but we will let them pass, and turn to the other
poems. At p. 141. we have the subjoined pretty little effort
reminding us, of course, of Charles Fox’s juvenile effusion,

“ *I, Cypriæ fida columba Deæ,*”

but elegant and pleasing in its kind:

‘ THE

Write
proof.

‘ THE COURIER DOVE.

Written, at the Desire of a Lady, under an Engraving which represented a Girl fastening a Letter to the Neck of a Pigeon.

“ Vas, porter cet écrit à l’objet de mon cœur ! ”

‘ Outstrip the winds, my courier dove !
On pinions fleet and free,
And bear this letter to my love
Who’s far away from me.

‘ It bids him mark thy plume, whereon
The changing colours range ;
But warns him that my peace is gone
If he should, also, change.

‘ It tells him thou returnest again
To her who set thee free ; —
And O ! it asks the truant, when
He’ll thus resemble thee ?’

The last quotation that we shall make is the commencement of a very tender effusion indeed, and one that is highly creditable to the feelings of the writer :

‘ STANZAS ADDRESSED TO THE AUTHOR’S MOTHER.

‘ Believe me, though my idle shell
Hath never breathed thy name before,
It was not that its voice could tell
Of one on earth I value more !
When thoughts of thee my soul came o’er,
I found, alas, a feeble lay
But ill expressed the love I bore —
It said not what my heart would say.

‘ And, if I now attempt to dwell
Upon a matchless mother’s praise,
Each word must, like a cypher, swell
The sum my fond affection pays :
Remember, did mine infant gaze
E’er thank thee for thy tenderness ?
And, as thy spirit read its rays,
Imagine — all I can’t express !’

We learn that this volume is the production of Mr. Reid, author of *The Hill of Caves*, mentioned in our Number for May, 1820, p. 96.

Art. 18. *Poems*, by P. M. James. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards.
Arch. 1821.

We are for ever indebted to Shakspeare, for investing the phrase “ of talking an infinite deal of nothing ; ” since no other phrase could so well have designated the *empty sound* which eternally issues from the modern poetical press. Of what earthly avail is it to go on inditing such matters as the following ?

‘ O, life hath its visions of beauty rare,
With the joy of the spirit entwined !

Illusions

Illusions of loveliness, fleeting as fair,
That break thro' the trance of the mind!
With beams of the morning they brighten the gloom,
To the soul are their melodies given;
And the hues that their woods and their vallies assume
Are the light and the radiance of Heaven!

'*Radiance*,' we conceive, might stand alone without '*light*;' according to the old rule of *omne majus, &c.*

It is easy to trace this species of *cantering* versification to the Irish melodies, or to their less worthy predecessors. In truth, few sentimental youths pass their *nonage* without some *dotage* of the kind; and, while Moore kindles the poetical spark in some, and Burns in others, (we are speaking of brief lyrical effusions,) such things must be. The paper that is wasted, however, has employed the industrious decomposer of rags from whose machinery it issued; the ink and the pens have set their appropriate manufacturers at work; and the poet himself (to use a merciful phrase) *might* have done something worse! Yet this last is sometimes hardly possible; and, seriously speaking, if valuable time be frittered away in these alternate languishments and friskings of the muse, it becomes, in all such cases, a duty to laugh them out of countenance.

We present our readers with another extract. It is very fine.

'SONG OF THE WEIRD SISTERS.

'When to the towers of fell Macbeth
Rush'd on the warrior form of death;
As hurtling thro' the dusky night,
The haggard sisters mark'd his flight;
They poured upon the howling blast
The song of triumph as he *past*.' (*pass'd*.)

What is the meaning of '*hurtling*,' in this passage?

Art. 19. *The Improvisatore*, in Three *Fyttes*, with other Poems.
By Thomas Lovell Beddoes. 12mo. pp. 128. Whittakers. 1821.

Fits, indeed! hysterical, decidedly. Let the reader judge from the battle-piece:

'The tempest is moistening its blast in the blood
Which trickles along in a scurfy flood.
The dead are all reeking, a ghastly heap,
Slippery with gore, and with crushed bones steep:
As if the flesh had been snowed on the hills,
And dribbled away in blood-clammy rills;
A swamp of distorted faces it lay,
And sweltered and bubbled in the broad day.
There was one who had fainted in battle's crash,
Now he struggled in vain with feeble splash
Under his warm tomb of motionless dead;
At last he dashed backward his bursting head,
And gasped in his hideous agony,
And ground his firm teeth and darted his eye;

Then

Then wriggled his lips in the last prayer of death
 And mixed with the whirlwind his foamed breath.
 Another, with gold-hilted sabre girt,
 Had crawl'd from amid the fermenting dirt,
 And was creeping with torture along the ground,
 Tracking his path with an opening wound;
 But a plunderer, spying his failing form,
 Scattered his brains as hot food for the storm. —
 A carrion crow, that was whetting its bill
 On a naked bone, which was reeking still,
 Heavily flapped its broad wings for a flight,
 But could not soar upward, so gorged all night.

Have we not "supped full of horrors?"

As we wish to soothe our affrighted readers at parting, we must present them with another scene :

Meanwhile his sense was charm'd with a song,
 That drew him, with the clue of sound, along.
 The rippling lake was hushed, as if each nymph,
 To catch those notes of chaunted melody,
 Were pillowed softly on her couch of lymph;
 Or 'twere the saucy wavelet's lullaby.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 20. *An Account of the Improvements on the Estates of the Marquess of Stafford*, in the Counties of Stafford and Salop, and on the Estate of Sutherland, with Remarks. By James Loch, Esq. 8vo. pp. 235. With numerous Plates. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

About two years ago, the newspapers gave an incautious publicity to certain alleged acts of cruelty, oppression, and even barbarity, said to have been perpetrated by the Marquess of Stafford on a hapless, unoffending, and industrious tenantry; whom he was represented as having driven from their houses on his estate in Scotland, for the purpose of converting it into sheep-walks. We remember to have shuddered at the detail, given day after day, of human beings lingering in their beloved cottages after they were unroofed, and who could only be torn from them at last by setting them on fire. Conscious, however, not only of his own innocence, but of the actual improvement which he was making in the situation of his numerous tenantry, the Marquess suffered these calumnies to be circulated with impunity, and almost without notice. He has now taken the wise, the merciful, and the effectual course of permitting his principal agent, Mr. Loch, to give to the world an ample account of the improvements on his estates both in England and Scotland; and it is but justice to the latter gentleman to say that he has executed his task with great industry and ability, as also with a zeal for the wounded honour and humanity of his Lordship which does him much credit.

From the situation, climate, and soil of the county of Sutherland, where the Marquis has an estate of rock and mountain, moor and
 glen,

glen, of eight hundred thousand acres, the population on which is only fifteen thousand !; from the feudal connection, scarcely yet extinguished, between the laird, his tacksmen, and subtenants; from the desultory and peculiar habits of the mountaineers, hardy but not industrious; from the dreadful recurrence, every two or three years, of unfavourable seasons and deficient crops, subjecting these poor wretches to all the horrors of famine, from which they have often been saved entirely by his Lordship's liberality and benevolence; it seemed desirable to introduce some alteration of system, and to teach habits of industry to those, the great proportion of whose time, when not in the pursuit of game or of illicit distillation, was passed in indolence and sloth. In short, it was felt that the mountainous parts of the estate, and indeed of the county of Sutherland generally, are as much calculated for the maintenance of stock as they are unfit for the habitation of man. It was resolved, therefore, that the inhabitants should be removed; not, however, as we among others had been led by misrepresentations to apprehend; not,

“ Forced from their homes, a melancholy train,
To traverse climes beyond the western main;
Where wild Oswego spreads her swamps around,
And Niagara stuns with thundering sound.”

No: it was arranged that they should be removed from the mountains to the coast below, on the same estate; and that they should be settled in situations where, by the exercise of honest industry, they might obtain a decent livelihood, unexposed to those dreadful privations with which they were so often visited before, and where they might also add to the mass of national wealth.

‘ It had long been known that the coast of Sutherland abounded with many different kinds of fish, not only sufficient for the consumption of the country, but affording also a supply to any extent, for more distant markets or for exportation, when cured and salted. Besides the regular and continual supply of white fish, with which the shores thus abound, the coast of Sutherland is annually visited by one of those vast shoals of herrings, which frequent the coast of Scotland. It seemed as if it had been pointed out by nature, that the system for this remote district, in order that it might bear its suitable importance in contributing its share to the general stock of the country, was, to convert the mountainous districts into sheep-walks, and to remove the inhabitants to the coast, or to the valleys near the sea.

‘ It will be seen, that the object to be obtained by this arrangement was two-fold: it was, in the first place, to render this mountainous district contributory, as far as it was possible, to the general wealth and industry of the country, and in the manner most suitable to its situation and peculiar circumstances. This was to be effected by making it produce a large supply of wool, for the staple manufactory of England; while, at the same time, it should support as numerous, and a far more laborious and useful population, than it hitherto had done at home: and, in the
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second place, to convert the inhabitants of those districts to the habits of regular and continued industry, and to enable them to bring to market a very considerable surplus quantity of provisions, for the supply of the large towns in the southern parts of the island, or for the purpose of exportation.'

In carrying this plan into effect, the utmost care was taken to explain the object proposed to be accomplished to those who were to be removed, and the ultimate advantages that would accrue to them in its completion. Ample notice also was given of the measure, and every facility and encouragement to obtain their acquiescence and co-operation. Every individual was allowed a year's occupation, rent free, on condition of settling on his new lot without delay, and a new lot was offered to every individual: not a soul was driven from the estate. All arrears on account of meal, rent, &c. were abandoned, to the amount of more than *fifteen thousand pounds*: the moss-fir belonging to the tenants' huts was purchased at a sworn valuation made by two appraisers, where it could not be conveniently carried away; and new wood was given to them by the Marquess, to construct their new houses. No exaction or entreaty, however, could persuade many of them to prepare for the removal of their families and property; *an under-current* running in an opposite direction to that which appeared on the surface.

'Notwithstanding this dilatoriness in occupying their new lots, by far the greater bulk of the people are now settled upon the coast, and adopting with zeal and alacrity the cultivation of their land, and the prosecution of the herring-fishery. In nine cases only was it necessary to enforce the law in removing the people; and out of these, five consisted merely in taking out a portion of the furniture which the people had left behind them. So minutely and carefully were the proceedings conducted, that a memorandum was made of each case by the Procurator Fiscal, who is the public prosecutor of the county, at the time of each removal, of the state and condition of each cottage. To these minutes, reference may be had as occasion may require, and they serve as the most complete and thorough refutation of all the falsehoods and calumnies which have been propagated regarding these transactions.'

The result of these arrangements, apparently founded in wisdom and executed with humanity, is that the whole population of the different straths, with a very unimportant exception, is at this time settled along the sea-shore; and the people inhabit small towns, near the various creeks, where they have begun to cultivate their lots with much industry. Many of them, having been accustomed to the herring-fishing, have extended their pursuit with great boldness to the catching of cod and ling, and are becoming expert and enterprising seamen.

A few farms only yet remain on some parts of the hilly districts most favourable for cultivation and improvement; and here a very important alteration has been made in the tenures. Every tacksman formerly paid the bulk of his rent by the number of men that

he could raise; and his son, or his kinsman, was promoted in the Sutherland regiment, according to the number of recruits which he furnished; — the remaining portion of his rent, which was payable in kind or money, was obtained by underletting part of the lands in the most exorbitant manner. The tacksmen exacted from their subtenants services of the most oppressive nature, and to an extent which frequently enabled them to hold their own occupations rent-free; and in later times, although some of the more odious parts of this system were mitigated, an entire district was often let to the whole body of tenants resident in each township, who bound themselves, conjointly and severally, for the payment of the whole rent. The hard-working and industrious, therefore, after having discharged their own rent, were subject to be obliged to pay the arrears of the idle and profligate who had escaped. Now, the tenants all hold immediately of the landlord: their lots are regularly laid together, to which is attached a hill-pasture of definite extent; and no one is responsible for the payment of any other rent than his own. They are bound also to build *stone-houses*, within view of the roads of communication through the county; an arrangement which will prevent the erection of those wretched huts, under which a numerous population formerly sheltered themselves who paid *no* rent at all. Those encroachments were carried to such an audacious excess that, three or four years ago, when Lord Stafford's humanity was employed in relieving the extreme of human misery to which his tenants under the old system had been reduced by the failure of their provisions, it was found, on an accurate examination of the names and circumstances of those who claimed relief, that not fewer than four hundred and eight families, consisting of nearly two thousand individuals, had fixed themselves in the outskirts of the more distant towns and the remote districts of his estate, who held neither of landlord nor tacksmen, and who resided on his property, in short, without paying any rent whatever! This hard-hearted and cruel landlord, accused of having depopulated his farms to make room for sheep, — driving away his tenants by the terror of the fire-brand, — immediately ordered that necessary relief should be extended to these unhappy intruders, as well as to others who stood in need of it. Let the calumniators of the noble Marquess read this anecdote, and blush at their own atrocious criminality in having borne "false witness against their neighbour!" Cottages, unshapely indeed and coarse, but far better than the old mountain-huts, are springing up along the coast; and Mr. Loch, whose book contains a great portion of very interesting matter, bears testimony to the improved cultivation of the lots by the cotters: asserting that the quantity of waste land taken in by them from the face of the mountain is very great. As an evidence that the increasing wealth and prosperity of the people have kept pace with the improvement of the new system, it is mentioned that, at the Brora-fair of November, 1819, (an institution of a few years' standing,) a sum of fifteen hundred pounds was spent in what are termed *fineries*, almost entirely by the settlers on the coast-side, whose poverty, wretchedness, and hard fate have been pleaded in such strong but unfounded terms.

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The extension of the fisheries, also, is astonishing: in the year 1814, they employed 8 coopers, 60 women, 80 men, and 20 boats; and 2400 barrels of herrings were cured: but it has increased almost geometrically from that time to the present. In 1819, they employed 70 coopers, 645 women, 1020 men, and 204 boats; and 20,000 barrels were cured. From a single creek, whence before the year 1814 not a single boat issued, in the year 1818 were cleared out 2973 registered tons of shipping; and in 1819 were entered 5246 tons. These are the exports and imports at Helmsdale only. For more ample particulars, we must refer to the volume itself.

The improvements going forwards on the Marquess's estates in the counties of Stafford and Salop are, like those in Sutherland, on a magnificent scale, and cannot fail to be attended with national as well as individual advantage.

Art. 21. *Considerations on the Expediency of an improved Mode of Treatment of Slaves in the West-Indian Colonies, &c.* 8vo. 2s. Hatchard and Son. 1820.

It is the object of this pamphlet to recommend that the discretionary power which has been allowed to the planters, of inflicting thirty-nine lashes on their slaves, should be relinquished, and no punishment administered without the direction of a magistrate; that instead of fish, which is now by law distributed together with vegetable food, vegetable food only should be allotted as their right: but that some few pence might be added by way of encouragement to each slave, and as the reward of diligence. On these two points the author's reasonings are dictated by humanity, and the regulations suggested are perhaps both desirable and practicable.

His next plan is to secure for the slaves a punctual fulfillment of the laws relative to their daily subsistence. At present, redress is provided on the complaint of the slave: but the writer would have the planter appear once in a month before some magistrate, and there make oath that he has complied with the laws. It is obvious, however, that a planter who would knowingly cheat his slave of his subsistence would not scruple to take a false oath; and, if such things can occur without his knowledge, his oath is no security.—For the purpose of equalizing the price of provisions through the colonies, the author wishes a trade to be established to Venezuela, or, if that cannot be accomplished, to Porto Rico. With regard to the United States, he adopts much unsound reasoning on their conduct in interdicting any intercourse.

The last chapter relates to a religious establishment; and, after having made acknowledgements which we believe to be well-founded, respecting the zeal of the Moravian missionaries, the writer proposes that the colonies should be divided into districts, each composed of several plantations, and answering in some degree to our parishes; in every one of which districts a place of worship should be erected by contributions from the planters residing in it.

This pamphlet is composed in a very temperate and discreet manner, and we think that its suggestions deserve consideration: but

but we could have wished that the author had not interspersed so many classical quotations, which do not in any one instance illustrate his subject, and happen once or twice to be singularly inappropriate.

Art. 22. *An Essay on the Evils of popular Ignorance.* By John Foster. 8vo. pp. 304. 7s. 6d. Boards. Holdsworth. 1820.

This treatise is written with great clearness, and gives an elaborate exposition of principles which we should have deemed sufficiently evident without any deduction, if the events of the present times did not shew the contrary to be the fact. The author evinces throughout much temper and good sense.

Art. 23. *The Evils of Education, elucidated in a Letter to Henry Bankes, Esq., M.P.* 8vo. 2s. Wilson. 1821.

A supposition is here assumed that the lower orders of society have interests diametrically opposite to the higher: that, therefore, any measure which tends to instruct and benefit the former must in a proportionable degree impair the security of the latter; and that, moreover, the prevailing religion is one in which faith is best secured by ignorance. Accordingly, the letter before us, in an ironical form, deprecates the farther progress of education, and urges Mr. Bankes to interpose: 'for Rome,' says the author, 'was saved by the vigilance and eloquence of a calumniated fowl, and had there been a stately self-important goose in Eve's bower, Satan might have in vain set himself squat like a toad at her ear.' The mode of writing, which the author has adopted, has enabled him to introduce indirectly many passionate attacks on the evils of an aristocracy, and on the cruelty and injustice of any taxation which affects labour instead of falling exclusively on permanent property; endeavouring also to shew that 'the farmers, labourers, tradesmen, and mechanics, have in fair justice no more concern with the payment of interest to the public creditors than with the rotation of crops in the moon or the state of commerce in Saturn.' Much sophistry and declamation on these subjects is followed by a character of Nero, executed with some point.

We should judge the author to belong to a certain school of *Political Justice*, more remarkable for its ingenuity than its good sense; and we think that the pamphlet before us cannot be perused with too great caution.

Art. 24. *The New Reader, consisting of Religious, Moral, Literary, and Historical Pieces.* 12mo. pp. 311. 3s. 6d. bound. Longman and Co.

Of this volume of selections, we think that the religious portion is rather too large, and that in it the extracts from Mrs. Hannah More are made with a much more profuse hand than their merits in any degree warrant. Nothing can be more likely in effect to injure the cause of virtue, than to be incessantly obtruding on the attention of young people the dogmata of religion and morality in a dictatorial and repulsive form. The miscellaneous articles will instruct and amuse: but of each of them, if it should please, we may probably say, "*Decies repetita placebit.*"



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1821.

ART. I. *Journal of a Tour through Part of the Snowy Range of the Himālā Mountains, and to the Sources of the Rivers Jumna and Ganges.* By James Baillie Fraser, Esq. 4to. pp. 548. 3l. 3s. Boards. Rodwell and Martin. 1820.

IT is desirable that a traveller through regions little known should possess an acquaintance with various branches of physics; such as geology, mineralogy, and natural history; and the tour of Mr. Fraser was by no means an exception to this case. He expresses himself, however, in terms of such unaffected diffidence and regret, on the subject of his consciousness of limited scientific knowledge, that we must be very sour and crabbed critics if we harshly reproached him for his slender contributions in those departments. At the same time, we should say that, with such avowed deficiencies, Mr. Fraser would have exercised a sounder judgment, if, instead of offering to his readers a volume as big as one of the mountains which it describes, he had condensed his materials into a much smaller compass, and shaped them into a more flowing and connected narrative: but here again a plea is put in against us: for we are told that, immediately on his return from the hills, when the impressions on his mind were most vivid, sickness and distress assailed him; and such correction and arrangement as the materials have undergone were effected, it seems, during the hurry of business, and under the languor of disease. We should be ashamed to manifest insensibility to an appeal like this; and we would rather thank Mr. F. for the information which he has conveyed, than reproach him for not having given more.

As a preliminary to the body of the work, a slight historical sketch is given of Nepāl, and the Ghoorkha conquest; with a rapid view of the rise, progress, and termination of the British war with that government.* It was in consequence

* Our readers will not have forgotten the valuable work of Col. Kirkpatrick respecting the government and country of Nepaul. See Rev. Vol. lxxv. p. 337.

of this war that opportunities were afforded to make the journeys here related; and as war, however stimulating and seductive to ambitious minds, has in its train but too much horror, desolation, and woe, it seems only fair to confess, particularly with reference to remote periods of time, and to countries but little known to each other, that it has been one of the most efficient means of acquiring and communicating knowledge, language, the arts, and, ulteriorly, as connected with these, when the fury of the storm has passed away, of opening new channels to the pacific sails of commerce. If Mr. Fraser has disappointed the hopes of the naturalist, he has introduced the general reader to an acquaintance with the political and moral state, accompanied with sketches of the disposition and manners, of a curious people, hitherto scarcely known to Europeans. The recent war with Nepāl was destructive to the Ghoorkha power, and annexed to the British possessions a province which unites their territories with those of the Chinese empire, through the Himālāyan mountains. It began in October, 1814, and was closed in the beginning of May, 1815, by the evacuation on the part of the Nepāl government of all the country to the west of the Gogra, as far as Gurwhal, together with the fort of Almorah, and all the other strong holds in the province of Kumaoon.

A strong similarity is traceable between the countries contained in the mountainous belt that confines Hindoostan, and the state of things which existed in the Highlands of Scotland during the height of the feudal system; when each possessor of a landed estate exercised the functions of a sovereign, and made war on his neighbours as often as he was impelled by avarice or ambition. The small state of Ghoorkha is considerably to the north of Nepāl: but an active and warlike chieftain turned his ardent eyes on the fertile valley below, comprized within a circumference of forty miles; and, taking advantage of the disagreements which subsisted among the chiefs of the three independent states that it inclosed, he entered on a long and bloody struggle, which ended in his conquest of the whole.

The Ghoorkhas have a resemblance in their physiognomy to the Malay or Chinese: but their soldiers are stout thickset men, very active, strong, and courageous, in combat preferring the use of the sword and bayonet to the musket; and they are a far more formidable enemy to encounter than the natives of the plain who fled from our arms in former campaigns. The siege of Kalunga was carried on by us for a month with an overwhelming force against the small but heroic garrison of Ghoorkhas; and their desperate courage and resist-

resistance merited and received the admiration of the assailants: who, on taking possession of it, found the whole area of the fort a slaughter-house, strewn with bodies of the dead, and with the mangled and dismembered limbs of the wounded. Small, indeed, and miserable were the trophies which the British reaped on this occasion: dreadful was the effect of their shells on the shattered and unprotected garrison; and the few and faint survivors, not exceeding 70 in number, made their escape, with very little loss, bravely fighting their way through the chain of posts placed to intercept them, and pursued, moreover, by a party under Major Ludlow.

Yet the courtesy of these people, and their generosity, are still more striking features in their character, as being more uncommon than their bravery. No rancorous spirit of revenge animated them; and in the intervals of actual combat they always exhibited a conduct worthy of a more enlightened state. They never dishonoured the bodies of the dead, or inflicted cruelty on the wounded or the captive: they used no unfair weapons, and poisoned no wells, but fought superior forces of the British in fair and honourable conflict. Once, while the batteries were playing, a man was perceived on the breach, advancing and waving his hand: the guns ceased; he walked into the batteries, and proved to be a Ghoorkha, whose lower jaw having been shattered by a cannon-shot, he frankly came to solicit surgical assistance from his enemy. This was of course afforded: the man recovered; and, on being discharged from the hospital, he expressed a desire to return to his corps to combat us again. He thus exhibited, says Mr. Fraser, a strong sense of the value of generosity and courtesy in warfare, and also of his duty to his country; separating completely private and national feelings from each other, and his confidence in the individuals of our nation from the duty which he owed to his own to fight against us collectively.

The chain of mountains, of which the great Himālā range forms the central ridge, stretches from the Indus on the north-west to the Burhampooter on the south-east, dividing the plains of Hindoostan and the Punjab from the wilds of Tartary. This tract of country, so little known to Europeans, is interesting to the geographer as containing the sources of many of those majestic rivers which fertilize Hindoostan and other Asiatic regions; and to the statesman as being inhabited by numerous and singular warlike tribes, who have for ages defied the arms of the most powerful Asiatic monarchs. It serves also as a magnificent boundary between the empire of China and our own dominions. The portion of it which was visited in 1815 by Mr. Fraser lies between the rivers Sutlej

and Alacknunda, an eastern branch of the Ganges. The country is wild, rugged, and difficult of access, increasing in elevation as it recedes from the plains, till at the foot of the snowy mountains it assumes a savage wildness; and, except in the passes or beds of rivers, occasionally it becomes imperious. The rivers themselves also change their character as they approach their sources, from the rapid stream affording a comparatively easy road on its banks, to torrents dashing from rock to rock; along which the traveller finds his obstacles augment to the peril of his life, and is obliged to pick his dangerous way across the face of precipices, till at length his career is stopped by masses of mighty ruin that baffle all human attempts to invade them.

Mr. Fraser set out from Dehli in the beginning of March, 1815; proceeding through Nahn, in the province of Sirmore, to Jytock, which fort was at that time besieged by General Martindale. This province had fallen under the Ghoorkha tyranny; and Bhulbhudder Sing, who had so valorously sustained the bloody assault at Kalunga, where he commanded, had now thrown himself with the little remnant of the garrison which escaped with him into Jytock, to sustain another siege. Here the Ghoorkha character, which had before exhibited such fearless valour, displayed itself again in the endurance without a murmur of all the horrible extremities of famine; and the garrison was altogether only driven to capitulate, when not one single day's consumption of grain was left in the place for five-and-twenty hundred people, men, women, and children! The Ghoorkha commanders steadily persevered to the very last, under the most hopeless circumstances; while their soldiers, faint and feeble from inanition, cheerfully bore every privation and faithfully discharged their duty. The conduct of the commander, Runjore Sing Thappa, when he resigned himself a prisoner, is represented as being truly dignified, and in every respect becoming the character of a hero. Jytock is about 3600 feet above the level of the plains, and the face of the country in its neighbourhood is peculiarly rugged: no glaciers occupy any part of the snowy mountains, but a perpetual frost appears to rest on their summits. The general line of the mountains in this region is north-west and south-east: the lower ridge of sand-stone, hard clay, and rounded pebbles, rising from 500 to 780 feet; while another ridge, with sharp narrow crests, and more siliceous, rises from 1500 to 5000, beyond which is a lime-stone mountain of 7000 feet. These estimates of height, however, are probably very vague; and it is not a little extraordinary that Mr. Fraser had not even a barometer or a thermometer with him. He
makes

makes a general observation that the northern exposure of the hills is wooded and rough, while the southern is comparatively smooth and bare. The sloping sides of the mountains are here cultivated with corn, by having been artificially cut into a succession of terraces, rising, like a flight of steps, one above another. Villages, either inhabited or in ruins, abound all over them, and give a strong impression of former populousness: but the fact is that the inhabitants, frequently indeed driven by the desolating march of the conqueror, but sometimes urged by inclination or accidental circumstances, quit one village, which soon falls into decay, and establish themselves in another, which soon also rises in its stead. Their houses are rudely constructed, with doors so very small (three feet and a half high, and about half that breadth,) that a man must enter head and shoulders first, and drag in his body afterward: but within, they are uniformly neat and clean. The people, though muscular and stoutly built, are universally of diminutive stature: mean of aspect, disgustingly cringing in their address, of degraded intellect, and brutally ignorant. Such, at least, is Mr. Fraser's unfavourable account of them: but it will be recollected that it was a part of the Ghoorkha policy to disarm the natives of the state which they subdued; and, as they are defenceless, perhaps the character which Mr. F. has ascribed to them belongs rather to their situation than to themselves. We are the more inclined to think this, because the great skill and industry with which they cultivate their mountain-sides are inconsistent with degraded intellect and brutish ignorance; while the remarkable neatness in the interior of their houses proves that they have a taste for that sort of domestic comfort, about which such stupidity and brutality would be very indifferent. Their complexion is of every shade, from dark brown or black to a tawny yellow, and sometimes it approaches to white. Without the softness or intelligence of the Hindoo physiognomy, a general resemblance to it appears in their cast of countenance. The excessive jealousy and consequent seclusion of women, so generally practised among the Asiatics, does not prevail here: on the contrary, they appear abroad as unreservedly as the men. Chastity, indeed, is a virtue little known, and less valued; and a plurality of husbands is not more uncommon here than a plurality of wives is in many Asiatic countries. It is even not unusual for a family of four or five brothers to marry and possess the same woman at the same time; nor is a community of wives more uncommon than a community of husbands. The religion which these people profess is Hindooism, but their practice is confined to the worship of a number of imaginary

powers and to the partial observance of caste. The established Hindoo deities are held sacred : but the superstitious imagination of the " Paharia," or Mountaineer, has peopled every grove and dell with some object of his fervent and fearful devotion. He pays his adoration to the cow ; and, though several British officers have tendered gold for these holy animals, he will never sell one, except to a Hindoo.

The state of Sirmore, as before observed, fell under the Ghoorkha power : which was exerted so tyrannously that, wherever the inhabitants dared to shew their disposition, they came over to the British, whom they considered as their deliverers ; and it was deemed expedient to detach a force to the northward, which might assist the troops of those petty chiefs who were well disposed in destroying the scattered parties of the enemy. Mr. William Fraser, the author's brother, the political agent attending the army, had already been very successful in his negotiations ; and he was appointed on this service, with a motley group of irregulars from the plains, altogether amounting to between 8 and 900 men and boys, of various garb and grotesque appearance, armed with swords, matchlocks, and the national weapon, the *cookree*. — At a miserable village called Bahun, the party witnessed a singular practice to which the inhabitants of the hills submit their young children. Several straw sheds are constructed on a bank, above which a cold and clear stream is led to water their fields. To these huts the women bring their children in the heat of the day, and having lulled them to sleep by a rapid rotatory motion, and wrapped their bodies and feet warm in a blanket, they place them horizontally on a sort of tray ; so that a small stream of the water, which is brought into the shed by a hollow stick or piece of bark, may fall on the heads of their infants, whose sleep under this cooling regimen is sound and unruffled. This practice is universal throughout the hills ; under the impression that it is very salutary to keep the head cool, and that constant bathing increases the hardihood and strength of the children.

A novel and singular style of building here presented itself. The valleys are thickly sprinkled with villages, in every one of which are two or three lofty towers, rising to the height of five or six stories, with overhanging roofs. These are not the habitations of the vulgar, but temples for the gods, one of whom is believed to be actually resident in each of them ; and they are frequently ornamented with rude sculptures in wood. The houses, too, with their projecting balconies, are loftier than those which the party first saw, and have a picturesque effect. Not only indefatigable industry but considerable forethought

thought and ingenuity must be exerted by these mountaineers, suffering as they evidently did under the iron rule of their Ghorkha conquerors, in cultivating with corn, rice, poppies, tobacco, &c., the rugged, rocky, and precipitous sides of their mountain-soil. The declivities are cut away into a succession of terraces; and the level is so nicely adjusted that the rivulet, which is often laboriously diverted from its course to irrigate these narrow strips, is never suffered to wash away the soil, but, after having performed its duty to the higher terraces, is collected again and conducted to those beneath. It is often also carried across a deep dell, by means of long hollow trees, for the purpose of irrigating the opposite side of the valley. Their implements of husbandry are miserable, but Hindoo patience is the substitute for better mechanics. — The mulberry grows luxuriantly over all the hills, but Mr. Fraser does not mention the silk-worm.

‘ We observed in our march to-day a singular phenomenon in the natural history of insects — a great number of caterpillars, which appeared to be migrating from one place to another; and they were proceeding along in one line, with their heads and tails united one to another, so that the whole, consisting of some hundreds, assumed the appearance of one thin animal, many feet long. The strength of their adhesion to each other was considerable, so that it was by no means easy to separate them. Their bodies were of a gray colour, striped with black, and they had black heads and tails.’

Rajgurh is a fort now in ruins, belonging to the royal family of Sirmore. Proceeding in a north-easterly direction towards the mountain, Choor, several lofty temples presented themselves, in a mixed architecture of the Hindoo and Chinese; and the culture of wheat, &c. is most indefatigably pursued wherever a spade can enter. Yet abundant as corn was, the motley troops, ignorant of the success of the British arms, found the utmost difficulty in procuring provisions, because frequent plunder had produced habitual fear; the offer of payment on the spot was very often insufficient to obtain them; nor could any thing short of actual force, or the threat of it, induce these poor enslaved wretches to bring their stores from concealment. — Choor is the highest peak between the Sutlej and Jumna, short of the snowy mountains; and observations subsequent to this tour have fixed its elevation at 10,688 feet above the plains. It is the nucleus from which all the surrounding hills radiate as from a centre, and streams flow from it in every direction to swell the Girree and Pabur rivers. The fir, the oak, the holly, the larch, — and among the smaller shrubs, strawberry and raspberry plants, rhodo-

dendrons, ferns, and a great variety of meadow flowers, common in Europe,—brought to the British traveller the remembrance of early days and the scenery of other countries.

Crossing the torrent of Bisharee, the troops now left the state of Sirmore, and entered that of Joobul; whose chieftain, Dangee, it was deemed of great consequence to win over, in order to occupy the strong places on his native hills. The wavering policy of Dangee again excites Mr. Fraser to a denunciation of the cunning and treachery of the Asiatics; although the chieftain himself is, in the same breath, gravely exculpated, under the peculiar circumstances of his situation, from the offence which gave rise to this renewed and unreasonable attack on the character of his countrymen. Mr. Fraser seems to think that, wherever the British flag is unfurled, resistance becomes a crime, and even hesitation to submit justifies the most opprobrious epithets. Because the zemindars of the villages were reluctant to supply his party with provisions, and brought out their hoards only at the threat of compulsion,—and because now and then a cooly of his own company, weary of marching with 60 or 70 pounds weight at his back over these craggy hills, chose to complain and resist,—the English language is ransacked for epithets expressive of obstinacy, meanness, and every thing that is contemptible. We may refer to p. 129., and particularly p. 195. 201, &c. &c.

The final success of the British arms rendering it unnecessary to travel with so large an escort, the troops were left at the fort of Choupal, ready to move on any emergency, while Mr. Fraser proceeded with a picked party of about fifty men. Still, however, the fortress of Raeengudh was occupied by about 160 Ghoorkhas, under the command of Runsoor T, happa, and we are told that 'it was one of our principal objects to get possession of it'—'it was a matter of some interest, if not of deep anxiety, to get possession of this fort,' which was accordingly summoned to surrender. In his reply,

'Runsoor observed, that he believed what we informed him, respecting the campaign, was very true; and that he must surrender one time or other, was likewise very apparent; but that he had provision and water for two months in the fort, and could see no good reason for giving up the fort before he was forced to do so; that he had eaten Ghoorkha salt, and should prove to them a traitor, if he complied with our terms, with the means in his hands which he actually possessed. He concluded by observing, somewhat shrewdly, that, if to them he should thus prove faithless, we could place little dependence on the fidelity of his services in any future employment.'

The threat was held out that, if he persisted in a fruitless *opposition*, the whole force of Joobul, all the irregulars then before

before the place, and the troops of Bischur and Cooloo also at hand, should be 'let loose' against him. The brave Ghoorkha despised the threats; and, after all this blustering, Mr. Fraser and his party thought '*the thing was not worth the sacrifice of lives it might have cost,*' and accordingly proceeded, very harmlessly, on their route to Bischur.

'While conversing with Thiken Dās upon the means for reducing the garrison, he told us, that he expected a man from his own country, who would construct a machine, by the help of which, the fort would soon be compelled to surrender. On his describing this machine, we were not a little surprised to find, that it was almost exactly similar to the catapulta of the Romans for projecting large stones. He plainly stated it to be framed of strong ropes, and large beams of wood; one of which, a large tree, was to be pulled back by the force of from one to two hundred men, and a heavy stone of from seventy to two hundred pounds, to be thrown by its re-action to a great distance, which, falling on a house or fort, would destroy it and the garrison. He said, that it had been used in that country more than once, with success; and that when one or two stones of a certain weight had been thrown, they could easily judge of the weight that would carry to the distance required; and would reach their object with certainty every time they discharged stones at it.'

Our travellers now entered the state of Bischur, where they were struck with observing in a small village the simple apparatus and construction of a smelting furnace, which they saw at work. The iron produced in these hills is said to be very fine, and in great request, and is sent to Lahore, the Punjāb, and to Bootan, beyond the snowy range. The appearance of the inhabitants is very much the same as before, and we find nothing to detain or interest us; for, magnificent as mountain-scenery is to the beholder, particularly if like Mr. Fraser he be an artist, the description of it soon palls on the ear.

Manjnee is a small village, near Comharsein, on the great river Sutlej. Here these people of 'degraded intellect and brutish ignorance' have built a temple, sacred to the goddess Bhowannee, which is remarkably neat, in the Chinese style.

'The whole of the interior is sculptured over in wood, with infinite labour, and probably forms a detail of the exploits of the deity: with these I am wholly unacquainted; but she seems to have been frequently engaged with monsters of very uninviting shapes. That portion of the carving, however, which neither represents the human nor animal figure, is by far the most beautiful. The whole roof, which is formed of fir-wood, is richly cut into flowers and ornaments entirely in the Hindoo taste, with a sharpness and precision, yet an ease, that does honour to the mountain-artist; and considering his tools and materials, it is truly wonderful.

ful. The shrine of the goddess was in the centre, and a small pair of folding doors, opening, disclosed her; but the outside apartment, containing the sculptured work, was filled with people of all sorts, apparently without any scandal or sense of impropriety to the priesthood, who inhabited the interior. There were several small pagodas, similar to those at Hat-Gobeseree, and much curious sculpture in stone; but it was wholly of a schistose and crumbling nature, which appeared to be mouldering into dust, and therefore could not be very ancient.

We have already mentioned a remarkable custom of these people with regard to marriage. It is the practice all over the country for the future husband to purchase his wife from her parents, the price varying with the rank of the buyer, and the usual charge to a common peasant or zemindar being from ten to twenty rupees. Three or four brothers marry and cohabit with one woman, as the wife of all, because 'they are unable to raise the requisite sum individually, and thus club their shares and buy one common spouse.' Mr. Fraser took some pains to investigate the reason and the origin of this general and revolting custom, but without any success; that which he has suggested in the preceding passage being obviously inapplicable. The price of wives can never be too high for the lower classes, unless the higher monopolize a great many. Where one man has several wives, one woman may have several husbands. Many instances are mentioned in Millar's "Distinction of Ranks" of this singular sort of polygamy; and in the antient Median empire it was customary for women to entertain a number of husbands. Captain Hamilton says that, on the coast of Malabar, a woman is *not allowed* to have more than twelve husbands: while Father Tachard, Superior of the French Missionary Jesuits in the East Indies, observes in the "*Lettres Edifiantes et Curieuses*," that in the neighbourhood of Calicut a woman is permitted by the laws to have several husbands; that the practice was especially prevalent *among the noble castes*; and that some of these ladies have had ten husbands at the same time, all of whom they consider as so many slaves subjected to their charms. This constitutes what a botanist would term *polygamia equalis*, or *necessaria*: but the *monandria polygynia*, if we may continue the allusion, is a more rare class and order, it seems, than the *pentandria*, or the *polyadelphia monogynia*, a few only of the great lords having courage to venture on the indulgence of half-a-dozen wives.

'It is strange that, in these promiscuous and complicated connexions, disputes seldom arise; but, of a family of four or five brothers, only one or two are in general at home at the same time:

time : some are out on service as soldiers, or with the minor chiefs ; others are travelling : the elder usually remains at home. If any quarrel were to arise, a common cause would be made against the offender, and ejectment from house and board ensue.

‘ Nor does the produce of this extraordinary union give any further rise to disputes : the first born child is the property of the elder brother, and the next in succession are supplied in turn.

‘ It is remarkable, that a people so degraded in morals, and many of whose customs are of so revolting a nature, should in other respects evince a much higher advancement in civilization, than we discover among other nations, whose manners are more engaging, and whose moral character ranks infinitely higher. Their persons are better clad, and more decent ; their approach more polite and unembarrassed ; and their address is better than that of most of the inhabitants of the remote Highlands of Scotland ; although certainly the circumstances, under which they saw Europeans for the first time, were sufficient to have confounded them much more than any that usually occur in the most distant and uncouth parts of the latter ; and their houses, in point of construction, comfort, and internal cleanliness, are beyond comparison superior to Scottish Highland dwellings.’

Mr. Fraser tells us that the women dispense their favours without the slightest sense of shame or guilt, and exhibit a degree of brutish insensibility that is hardly to be found among the rudest savages of other countries. Apparently, however, he forgets that in many islands of the Pacific Ocean women consider the offer of their persons to strangers as the mere ordinary pledge of hospitality, the refusal of which would be a very great indignity : indeed, it is hardly possible to read a book of travels, even through the frozen regions of the north, in which similar practices are not described. In rude and barbarous ages, where little distinction of rank existed, and the members of different families were nearly on a level, the intercourse of the sexes was very unrestrained : decency and decorum, eager hopes and anxious fears, being the artificial refinements of civilization. So far from regarding it as a blemish in a woman’s character that she has violated the laws of chastity before marriage, the American Indians are said to value her the more because it implies that she has been valued by others ; and young women among the antient Lydians were not permitted to marry till they had earned their dowries by prostitution. The case, indeed, is somewhat different with married women, among whom infidelity is often regarded as a heinous offence even in uncivilized nations. *Quot homines, tot sententiæ*, however ; and different nations have exhibited a great diversity of tastes even on this subject. The custom of lending a wife to a friend, that he might have
children

children by her, was not uncommon among the antient Greeks and Romans; and it was recommended to the Spartans by Lycurgus himself. Kings, indeed, were not allowed to lend their wives, and they constituted the only exception. [Plutarch's Life of Lycurgus.] Cato of Utica presented his wife Marcia, the daughter of Philip, a woman of good character, to his friend Quintus Hortensius, who was desirous of forming a family-alliance with him. Hortensius urged that Cato's family was already sufficiently numerous, and that Marcia was at that very time pregnant. Why should a woman, added he, overburden her husband with too large a family? the mutual use of women would not only increase a virtuous offspring, but strengthen and extend the connections of society. These arguments were unanswerable: but the virtuous Cato said it was necessary to consult Marcia's father, Philip, on the occasion: who having no sort of objection to the transfer, his pregnant daughter was espoused to Hortensius, in the presence of and with the consent of Cato. [Plut. Life of Cato, Uticensis.] Lycurgus, it is well known, instituted dances among the Spartan virgins on certain festivals, where they exhibited themselves in the presence of the young men in a state of entire nudity; and Cæsar says of the Germans, "*Intra annum vicesimum feminae notitiam habuisse, in turpissimis habent rebus: cujus rei nulla est occultatio, quod et promiscue in fluminibus perluantur, et pellibus aut parvis renorum tegumentis utuntur, magnâ corporis parte nudâ.*" [De Bel. Gal. lib. vi. § xx.] We may perhaps startle Mr. Fraser still more, by shewing him, from the same authority, that the practice which is so revolting to him — and well indeed it may be — of keeping a wife among four or five brothers, so general among the mountaineers of Himālā, was once common among the inhabitants of Britain: nay the crime was more complicated and extensive, for parents cohabited with the wives of their children. Cæsar, giving an account of this island and its inhabitants, says, "*Uxores habent deni duodenique inter se communes, et maxime fratres cum fratribus, et parentes cum liberis; sed si qui sunt ex his nati, eorum habentur liberi, à quibus primum virgines quæque ductæ sunt.*" [De Bell. Gal. lib. v. § xiv.] Here, as among the Himālāyans, the offspring had its appointed father without any dispute.

The custom of *buying* wives, also, is by no means peculiar to these mountaineers, but is common among all rude nations, whether in Asia, Africa, or America. To hint at the possibility of a sordid wedding between January and May, *in Europe*, — of a blooming virgin being sacrificed by her parents to a wealthy dotard, — would be very indecorous, and we shall

shall of course abstain from such an intimation. When Shechem wanted to marry the daughter of Jacob, "he said unto her father, and unto her brethren, Let me find grace in your eyes, and what ye shall say unto me, I will give. Ask me never so much dowry and gift, and I will give according as ye shall say unto me; but give me the damsel to wife." (Genesis, chap. xxxiv. v. 11, 12.) When David married Michal, the daughter of Saul, that King made a singular demand as the price of his consent; which being fulfilled by David, "Saul gave him Michal, his daughter, to wife." (1 Samuel, chap. xviii. v. 27.) Jacob served seven years for each of the two daughters of Laban, Leah who was "tender-eyed," and Rachel who was "beautiful and well-favoured." (Genesis, chap. xxix.) It may be noticed, too, that Jacob had *both these sisters for his wives at the same time*, and that the circumstance is not related as having been unusual or improper. Jacob had fallen in love with Rachel, the younger of the two sisters, and passed his servitude for *her*: but Laban deceived him by substituting her elder sister; and when he was reproached by Jacob, "Did not I serve thee for Rachel? wherefore hast thou beguiled me?", Laban said, "It must not be so done in our country to give the younger before the first-born." (V. 26.) So that it was a greater breach of custom and propriety to give the younger daughter in marriage before the elder, than it was to give both the sisters to the same husband. Jacob had children by Leah and Rachel at the same time, and by their hand-maids, Bilhah and Zilpah.

Although, as we before observed, nobody thinks of *buying* a wife in this country, at least, now-a-days, the odious practice was once prevalent even here. Sir Thomas Smith observes that, according to the old law of England, "the woman, at the church-door, was given of her father, or some other man of the next of her kinne, into the hands of the husband; and he laid down gold and silver for her upon the book, as though he did buy her." * Among the Romans, three ways of contracting marriage were practised, *farre*, *coemptione*, and *usu*. According to the custom of antiquity, the Roman husband *bought* his bride of her parents, and she fulfilled the *coemptio* by purchasing, with three pieces of copper, a just introduction to his house and household deities. So clearly was woman de-

* "The Commonwealth of England," b.iii. chap.8. Some curious matter connected with the condition of females in different ages and countries is to be found in Professor Millar's "Observations on the Distinction of Ranks in Society," which we have consulted on this occasion.

finied not as a *person* but a *thing*, says Gibbon, (*Decline and Fall*, chap. xlv.) that, if the original title was deficient, she might be claimed by the *use* and possession of an entire year. In Egypt, the marriage of brothers and sisters was admitted without scruple or exception: a Spartan might espouse the daughter of his father; an Athenian, that of his mother; and the nuptials of an uncle with his niece were applauded at Athens as a happy union of the dearest relations. The law-givers of Rome, however, frowned on these incestuous connections; and Cornelius Nepos, in the preface to his *Lives*, says, "*Neque enim Cimoni fuit turpe, Atheniensium summo viro, sororem Germanam habere in matrimonio; quippe quam civis ejus eodem uterentur instituto, at id quidem nostris moribus nefas habetur.*" See also his *Life of Cimon*, who married Elpicinea, "*non magis amore quam more ductus; nam Atheniensibus licet, eodem patre natus, uxores ducere.*" The laws of Athens allowed the dissolution of a marriage by mutual consent, and the parties were afterward at liberty to marry again. Thus, with regard to Cimon: after he had married Elpinice, a rich neighbour, Callias, "*non tam generosus quam pecuniosus,*" says Nepos, was very anxious to have her for his own wife; and offered to release Cimon, who had been detained in prison after the death of his father Miltiades on account of a debt which the latter owed to the government. Cimon refused his liberty on these terms: but such was the ardent and disinterested affection of his beloved *wife* and *sister* Elpinice, that she would not suffer him to remain in confinement when it was in her own power to free him; and she accordingly married Callias, who discharged the debt and liberated the prisoner. (See also *Plut. Life of Cimon.*)

We must return, however, from this long digression, which the strange erroneous assertion of Mr. Fraser has occasioned, to the snowy mountains of Himālā.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Travels on the Continent*, written for the Use and particular Information of Travellers. By Mariana Starke. 8vo. pp. 845. 1l. 5s. Boards. Murray. 1820.

WE hope that the forgiveness of this lady will be extended to us, if in the discharge of our critical duties we apprise our readers that, whatever share of juvenile attraction she may possess in other respects, her claim to notice as a writer and a traveller is that of a veteran; her former work, "*Letters from Italy*," having been descriptive of a residence in

in that country from the year 1792 to 1798. That publication, printed in 1800, and reported at some length in our Numbers for July and August of that year, has in the intervening period passed through three editions; having been found extremely useful to travellers from containing an account of inns, prices of provisions, roads, distances, modes of conveyance, and other directions, the whole given in so clear and circumstantial a manner as to induce us to describe it (M. R. vol. xxxii. p. 392.) as the best *Vade-mecum* and *Livre de Poste* that had fallen under our observation. A similar character is due to the present book, which may be termed a new edition of the former, but on a very enlarged and improved scale; Mrs. S. having passed two years (from May, 1817, to June, 1819,) in the countries which she has here described.

The subjects contained in this volume are, Description of Paris: Journey to Swisserland by Dijon, Auxonne, Geneva. Passage of the Alps by the Simplon: Milan, Parma, Modena, Bologna, Florence, and Pisa (the last two described at great length). Genoa, Nice, Turin, Leghorn, Lucca, Sienna: Rome and Naples, both described very fully. Environs of Naples, Pompeii, Pæstum, Sorrento, Capri. Return by the North-west of Italy and Germany, viz. by Rome, Perugia, Florence, Padua, Venice, (which is described largely,) Carinthia, Vienna, Moravia, Bohemia, Saxony; Hamburg; passage to Harwich.

These are the materials of that part of the volume which relates to the peregrination of the author; and which, if we except somewhat of a more particular notice of prices, and the state of roads, is written on the same plan as most books of travels: but the Appendix is essentially different, containing nothing in the shape of narrative, and being altogether appropriated to remarks on climate, the mode of conveyance, expences, and other particulars for the guidance of travellers. In extent, the Appendix is nearly equal to the preceding part of the book, and much more diversified in its objects, viz.

‘ Climate of Nice, Pisa, Massa; variable Temperature of Naples, Genoa, and Lisbon: Advantage as a Winter-residence of Towns in the East of Spain, viz. Barcelona, Valencia, Alicant.

‘ Directions for Travellers: Expence of going to France by Calais; by Dieppe; by Havre de Grace; by Bourdeaux. Travelling in the Interior of France by Canal: Road from Paris to the South-east by Dijon; by Lyons; by Avignon: to the East by Brussels; by Strasburg; by Besançon. — Switzerland; Expence of living and Mode of travelling.

‘ Italy; Mode of travelling in; cheapness of Tuscany. Travelling in the Interior and North of Italy; Road over the Alps by
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Mont Cenis; by the Simplon. Travelling in Austrian Italy; in the South of Germany; in Saxony; in the North of Germany; Leipsic, Gottingen, the Lower Rhine, Aix la Chapelle, and Spa.

Portugal; Merit of its Climate in regard to consumptive Invalids: Expence of Voyage thither; of living in Lisbon, Spain; travelling in the Interior; Madrid; Malaga, Cordova, Seville, Cadiz.

Holland; Passage from England; Route to the Interior, viz. Cleves and the Lower Rhine: Munster and Hanover; Description of Amsterdam. Route from Hamburgh to Copenhagen, Lubeck, Gottenburgh, Stockholm, Upsal, Christiania, Bergen. Russian dominions — Riga, Petersburg, Cronstadt, Moscow.

Our countrymen, on crossing the Channel for the first time, are often much disappointed by the inferiority of travelling accommodation, their means of comparison being only with England: but Mrs. S., in her second tour, had reference to a different standard, and found that the long interval between the journeys had been marked by a variety of improvements. New roads had been formed; the inns were both less rare and less uncomfortable, and bridges were in several places substituted for inconvenient and sometimes hazardous ferries. The cross roads in most parts of the Continent are still wretched, and even the great roads are not equal to those of England: but the improvements of the present age have made the latter so much better than formerly that, in a journey of 1500 miles through France, Switzerland, and Italy, Mrs. S. never had occasion to put more than three horses to her carriage, (a landaulet,) except while ascending the Alps and Appennines. Furnished lodgings are also less rare than formerly, owing not to such being made, as in England, the object of a direct business by particular individuals, but to the poverty of genteel families; who find the letting of a whole or a part of their spacious and ill-tenanted mansions the readiest means of supplying their deficiency of income. There has, however, been a correspondent increase of expence, not in the necessities of life, but in carriages, houses, and what may be termed in general the style of comfortable living: a consequence of the taxes and town-dues, of which the enhancement, though far behind that of fiscal burdens in this country, is found to bear with no small pressure on the scanty means of continental nations.

Having been under the necessity of attending to the effects of climate on consumptive patients in her own family, Mrs. Starke is particularly anxious to convey information to those invalids who resort to the warmer atmosphere of the south of Europe. They ought, she says, in travelling to Italy, to avoid crossing

crossing the Alps and Appennines, and take their passage either to Leghorn direct or to Bordeaux; proceeding from the latter by the Garonne and the canal of Languedoc to Marseilles, whence they can easily cross to Leghorn and reach Pisa by the canal. Pisa is not only a favourable place for invalids, but interesting by its architectural monuments; having been almost the first town of modern Italy where the Gothic, or, to speak more properly, the Arabesque or Saracenic style of building was introduced. This took place so early as the eleventh and twelfth centuries, and sculpture and painting were, in like manner, revived soon afterward; so that, to trace the progress of the fine arts, the proper plan is to visit this once populous and flourishing city before we proceed to Florence and Rome, where the monuments are of a more advanced age, being in general of the fifteenth century.

The space allotted in this volume to Germany is comparatively very brief: in the north of that country, the observations of Mrs. S. were confined to the banks of the Elbe, she having embarked on that river at Dresden, and sailed down its broad and tranquil stream to Hamburgh. This passage is usually performed in a week, and the only inconvenience is the occasional shallowness of the water for large boats. The banks of the river are, in general, finely wooded; and the principal towns in its vicinity are Meissen, Torgau, Wittenberg, Coswyk, Magdeburg, and Lauenburg. To Italy Mrs. S. allots a much larger space; the description of a few cities, Florence, Pisa, Naples, and above all Rome, being given at such length as to occupy nearly half of the volume: so that a more faithful, and, in our opinion, a more attractive title for her work would have been, "*Travels in Italy, followed by Directions for Travellers in that Country, France, Germany, and the Rest of Europe.*"

In laying before our readers a few extracts from this book, we shall not take them from the often-trodden ground of monuments, churches, and collections, but make choice of the counsels of the fair author with respect to climate and situation.

' My family was advised to travel over-land to Italy, and we therefore passed through France. Nice was recommended as the best winter-climate for pulmonary complaints, and we consequently resided there several months: but experience convinced us that we might have adopted a more eligible plan, as we saw at Nice no instance of recovery from pulmonary consumption; neither did this appear extraordinary in a climate where a fervid sun and an uncommonly sharp wind are perpetually combating with each other. Massa in point of climate is the counterpart of Nice; but

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Pisa,

Pisa, as I have already mentioned, is one of the best winter-climates in Europe, and ought, I am persuaded, in pulmonary complaints, to be decidedly preferred to every other city of Italy, from the commencement of October till the end of April. The marshy ground and standing water about Pisa formerly rendered the air unwholesome; but this evil is now removed; and the consequent increase of population has not only banished grass from the streets, but dispensed cheerfulness and health throughout this elegant city. It seems requisite, however, to give invalids who purpose residing here one caution, namely, never to sit, stand, nor walk in the sun without being defended by a parasol, and always to prefer walking on the shady side of a street. Newly-built houses are to be avoided here as in every other part of Italy; as it is, generally speaking, four or five years ere new walls become dry. Houses not built on arches are likewise to be avoided, and ground floors during winter, spring, and autumn, are unwholesome, though healthy in summer.

'Florence, during the height of summer, though wholesome, is, as I have already mentioned, oppressively hot; in autumn temperate; but in winter foggy and cold. To persons who require a bracing summer-climate I would recommend the baths of Lucca, where the thermometer seldom rises higher than from 76 to 78; or the town of Carrara, which from the loftiness of its position, from its vicinity to the sea, and likewise from the days (owing to the height of the mountains) being shorter there than in many other parts of Italy, is very cool. Sienna, also, from being built on an eminence, and therefore frequently visited by refreshing breezes, is deemed an eligible summer-abode; but, owing to that reflected heat from which no large city can be exempt, it is often oppressively hot during the months of July and August.'

Such are, in the opinion of Mrs. S., the merits of the principal situations in the north of Italy; and, had the observations of this lady been extended to Montpelier, the result would, we imagine, have been as far from favourable as in the case of Nice. She proceeds next to correct, or at least to qualify, some popular errors with regard to the south of Italy and Portugal.

'Rome, from the commencement of October till the end of April, is considered, when the lungs are not ulcerated, as even a better climate, in consumptive cases, than Pisa; and at all seasons that part of Rome not affected by *malaria* is particularly congenial to old persons; in so much that there are not, perhaps, half so many instances of longevity, without infirmities, in any other populous city of Europe. Naples, from the quantity of sulphur with which its atmosphere is impregnated, cannot be a good situation in all stages of a decline: at Naples, likewise, the wind is frequently strong and piercing; and the continual vicissitudes from heat to cold, which are common there during winter and spring, render the climate, at those seasons, a bad one. I have already

already recommended the plain of Sorrento as the most healthful summer-abode in southern Italy, and during a long residence there I seldom saw the thermometer rise to 78; neither was I ever tormented by moschettos, which, during the months of July, August, and September, are a serious evil in many parts of the Continent: the baths of Lucca, however, the city of Sienna, and all lofty situations, are, generally speaking, exempt from this pest.

'The climate of Genoa cannot (as I have already mentioned) be recommended; that of northern Italy is cold during winter, and at other seasons liable to sudden and unwholesome changes. Lisbon, also, is subject to these destructive vicissitudes of weather; inasmuch that but few consumptive invalids have recovered the blessing of health from visiting the banks of the Tagus. Spain as a place of residence is on some accounts objectionable, because the water and provisions (fruit and other vegetables excepted) are not, generally speaking, good in that country; but, with respect to climate, Barcelona, Valencia, and Alicant, are, during winter, preferable even to Pisa.'

We have now quoted enough to convey an idea of the book; and we should much exceed our limits, were we to enter on any farther account of the very extensive tracts of country described in it. Most of them, also, are familiar to our readers from other books of travels; and Mrs. S., though in her second journey she passed through Germany as well as Italy, was necessarily confined to one road, and could see but a small part of what is here described. The Appendix being in a smaller type, and the volume of a compressed character throughout, we have seldom seen a greater variety of matter in an equal space; and willingly do we repeat the testimony which we bore twenty years ago to the "Letters from Italy," that the volume forms a most convenient manual for travellers. Its utility, however, would be much increased by the correction of a number of errors on the part either of the printer or the author: such as the statement (Appendix, p. 31.) of French postage at a rate that is scarcely half its actual cost; the computation of the population of Liege (p. 204.) at 80,000, nearly double the real number; and the singular statement (p. 10.) that the passage from Dover to Ostend is only *somewhat* longer than the passage from Dover to Calais. As a literary composition, the work is very imperfect: the introduction is far from a neat summary of leading objects; particular passages, such as the description of the paintings and statues of the Louvre, occupying above twenty pages, are too minute for a book of travels; while the Appendix, compiled in a great measure from foreign itineraries, bears, in its want of arrangement and its retention of antiquated descriptions, many proofs of imperfection. With

regard to style, the faults, though slight, are frequent; while, on the other hand, the printing is neat, and the paper fine; recommendations which, without the attraction of plates, (of which there are none,) account for, if they do not altogether justify, the high price of the publication: but we think it would have been more convenient for travellers, had it been made to form two volumes instead of one.

ART. III. *A Practical Treatise on the Efficacy of Blood-letting in the Epidemic Fever of Edinburgh.* Illustrated by numerous Cases and Tables, extracted from the Journals of the Queensberry-house Fever Hospital. By Benjamin Welsh, M. D. Superintendent of that Institution. 8vo. pp. 358. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE late epidemic fever, which spread so extensively and with such fatal effects over Ireland, over almost the whole of Scotland, and through many parts of England, has given occasion to several excellent practical publications. Of these we have already noticed the valuable work of Dr. Bateman, (now recently deceased,) which contained perhaps the most enlightened and moderate views that have yet been presented to the public on this subject: (see M. R. vol. lxxxvii. p. 89.) and in our lxxxiid vol. we have given an account of the more decided and bolder practice of Dr. Mills. The present treatise, by Dr. Welsh, carries the practice of depletion to a still greater extent than it had been advocated even by the author just named; and it offers a more powerful and luminous exposition of facts in defence of that system of treatment, than we have hitherto seen. Dr. W. was intrusted with the superintendence of the Fever Hospital, opened in Queensberry-house, Edinburgh, and appears to have acted under the immediate direction of that distinguished veteran in medicine, Dr. James Hamilton, — of Dr. Spens, — and afterward, when Dr. H. resigned, of Dr. Home. We presume, however, from the manner in which Dr. W. has expressed himself, that a considerable share of responsibility in the management of the cases fell to his own lot. The great object of the volume before us is to point out the advantages of a free use of the lancet in fever, not to present to us merely an account of the epidemic; and we are therefore warranted in receiving it, like all other works intended to bring into notice a particular remedy, with some degree of caution, weighing well the documents which the author has adduced in support of his favourite mode of treatment. There is a simplicity in the practice of copious depletion by the lancet, which is peculiarly

liarily calculated to engage the admiration of the youthful practitioner in medicine: it was in antient times in high repute; and, notwithstanding all that has been said, it was never fairly banished from the lower ranks of the medical profession, for to open a vein has been at all periods the favourite resource of persons of this description, on the attack of all acute diseases. Indeed, we conceive that nothing but the most decided belief of the injurious effects of this plan of treatment, in a large proportion of cases, could ever have overthrown the practice of blood-letting in fever. We do not, however, mean to assert that the establishment of the new opinion was founded on that wide induction of facts which was to have been desired; nor that caution in the employment of the lancet was confined within the due bounds of moderation.

The epidemic which prevailed in Edinburgh appears, from the very distinct account presented by Dr. W., to have differed little from the common fever of the country; varying in several individuals from a highly inflammatory type, to one of much prostration and debility. It must be admitted, however, that its features were on the whole much more allied to the former type, and that in some instances it almost deserved the name of a pure inflammation: as, for example, in p. 101., we have a case of well marked hepatitis:—but we do not throw out these remarks to invalidate the author's testimony in favour of blood-letting in fever; for he has given us a sufficient number of unexceptionable cases, some of them in an advanced stage of the disease, in which the use of the lancet was fairly brought to trial. When Dr. W. seems little disposed to ascribe the origin of the epidemic to the severe pressure of the times, and considers it as originating from contagion, we do not feel inclined to concur with him in this opinion: excepting, perhaps, as far as it regards Edinburgh, where we learn that the distresses of the labouring poor were by no means so excessive as in Ireland, or even in the west of Scotland.

As a preface to his own experience of the efficacy of blood-letting in fever, the author has very properly introduced a comprehensive view of the history of this practice, from the earliest periods to the present day; and here it seems but a melancholy reflection on the value of medical experience, that the progress of the science brings us back to those modes of practice, which were in repute in its earliest infancy. Thus in fever we return to the use of the lancet; and in syphilis we reject mercury, and treat the disease by common means. Still, in both of these cases, this apparently retrograde movement

Welsh on Blood-letting in Fever.

the effect of the extravagant length to which we have pushed our opinions: for blood-letting, not along ago, was strictly prohibited in all cases of fever; and syphilis was absurdly defined to be a disease which nothing but mercury could cure. Now, when experience has distinctly proved the fallacy of both of these assertions, we run into the opposite extreme, treat all fevers by the lancet, and altogether abandon the use of mercury in syphilis. A little time, however, is all that is required to allow the heat of argument to subside, and to enable us to appreciate truly the value of both of these important remedies. The work of Dr. W. proves, we think, beyond all question, that blood-letting may be adopted in a great proportion of fever-cases without injury, and often with marked benefit: but we cannot assent to all the conclusions which he has drawn: nor can we withhold our disapprobation of the indifferent and undecided language, in which he speaks of those circumstances that contra-indicate the use of the lancet.

After having considered at some length the efficacy of blood-letting in fever, he closes the subject by the following bold conclusions:

1. Copious blood-letting lessens the mortality in fever.
2. It cuts short epidemic fever.
3. Even where it does not save, it protracts life.
4. It mitigates all the uneasy sensations.
5. It relieves irregular muscular action or spasm, subsultus, and singultus.
6. It removes coma or delirium.
7. It removes ischuria, constipation, and cuticular constriction.
8. It removes oppression and morbid congestion.
9. It reduces the temperature and pulse.
10. It calms the respiration.
11. It diminishes thirst, and improves the appetite.
12. It often checks nausea, retching, and vomiting.
13. It assists the operation of purgatives, and sometimes restrains diarrhoea.
14. It conciliates sleep to the patient.
15. It may be employed to five times the quantity believed, hitherto, not only with impunity, but great advantage.
16. Youth is no valid objection to its use.
17. Old age is no impediment to its application.
18. It is often of the greatest benefit in the most hopeless cases.
19. It is scarcely of less utility in long continued, than in recent disease.
20. It alters the type of the fever to one more favourable.
21. Where it does not cut short, it lessens the average duration of fever and convalescence.
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‘ 22. The utility of bloodletting in fever depends almost solely on its being copiously drawn; and it is on the merits of this principle alone, and more particularly its extension to a period of the disease, and under circumstances hitherto esteemed the most unfavourable for its use, that we rest our claims of originality or distinction from the other authors who have recommended the application of the lancet in continued fever.

‘ 23. The practice of copious venesection is probably yet capable of great improvement.’

In short, the author's advocacy for the effusion of blood is so unbounded, that he has not even attempted to point out when we ought to hold our hand, as if it were possible that a remedy so potent as blood-letting should not have its limit. Even in pure inflammation, there is a term beyond which the abstraction of blood only ensures and hastens the dissolution of the patient.

‘ It is not an easy task,’ (says Dr.W.,) ‘ to point out the contra-indications, for it is manifest that these must entirely depend on the success or failure of the practice in question applied to particular cases, and of course must vary with the experience of the writer. It is thus that the author forbears entering into particulars respecting contra-indications; being thoroughly convinced, from the revolutions that have taken place in his own opinions, that he could commit nothing to writing, that a farther acquaintance with the circumstances which call for the lancet might not make him willing to retract in a twelvemonth hence; just as he would now retract many of the contra-indications which, not more than a year ago, he would have considered insurmountable.’

To give some idea of the extent to which the practice of blood-letting was carried, in the hospital under the superintendence of Dr. W., we may state that the largest quantity drawn by him at one operation was 41 ounces; that from 20 to 28 ounces were very common quantities; and that many patients lost from 30 to 36 ounces at one venesection. A single bleeding seldom fell short of 16 ounces, and was very rarely under 12. A woman aged 25 lost 136 ounces at seven venesections, besides having 10 leeches applied: another, aged 24, lost 110 ounces at six operations, and had 34 leeches applied: a man aged 28 lost 108 ounces at six bleedings, besides the application of 11 leeches: a lad of 18 lost 104 ounces at five bleedings; and a girl of 13 is stated to have had 90 leeches applied to the head at six different times during the progress of her fever.

Of the efficacy of other remedies in fever, Dr. W. speaks in unfavourable terms: but, on reviewing the cases detailed in the Appendix, we see that a most unremitting and judicious

employment of purgatives was uniformly adopted; and, as we venture to affirm, not without a powerful influence in promoting the cure of the disease. No trials seem to have been made either of the cold affusion or of calomel, nor of nauseating doses of antimonials; all of which have had their advocates in former times:—nor was wine or porter given until the patients had already entered completely on convalescence, or were reduced to a state apparently beyond all hope. Unwilling as we are to discredit all the evidence which the records of medicine present, in proof of the efficacy of other remedies besides blood-letting in fever, we would endeavour to reconcile this strange contrariety of opinion by supposing that a judicious practitioner, furnished with some powerful remedy, of which he knows with accuracy the management, (let it be antimony, calomel, the cold affusion, wine, or blood-letting, or cathartics,) will so suit the time and so apportion the degree of its application, that he shall produce an average rate of cures, as high as can be found to result from any other exclusive mode of treatment:—but, certainly, *he* is likely to prove the most successful of all who can use every known means of averting and relieving fever, with judgment and precision. Such an individual, however, it is not probable that we shall soon meet; for such judicious and discriminating conduct requires a clearness of perception, and a liberality of mind, which few indeed have ever possessed.

In the Appendix, we have many well detailed and illustrative cases. Only two of them proved fatal: but they are selected as instances of the good effects of blood-letting, even when the disease baffled the power of the physician. We could have wished that other fatal cases had been given in detail, because we might have been thence enabled to discover some at least of the circumstances which contra-indicate the use of the lancet. We have, indeed, a tabular view of 34 fatal cases, but this is not sufficient for the purpose just mentioned. Other tables are given, which present highly interesting and useful views of the history and treatment of the epidemic fever. The total number of patients treated in the Queensberry-house institution, from the close of February, 1818, to the end of the same month in the succeeding year, was 833; and of these 39 died; giving, as the average proportion of mortality for the whole period, 1 in 22 $\frac{1}{3}$, which certainly is very low, and affords a favourable proof of the efficacy of the treatment.

On the whole, we consider the work of Dr. Welsh as valuable, although by no means a safe guide for young practitioners. If he has not succeeded in proving that the practice
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of blood-letting in fever merits all the confidence and the praise which he has bestowed on it, he has at least produced evidence amply sufficient to remove our dread of venesection in this disease, and to give it a place among the powerful remedies in the treatment of fever.

ART. IV. *Principles of Education*, Intellectual, Moral, and Physical. By the Rev. Lant Carpenter, LL. D. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

“**E** DUCATION,” says Dr. Johnson, “is as well known, and has long been as well known, as it ever can be.” This singular position appears to be not the result of serious reflection, but merely one of those random paradoxical assertions, which a man of extraordinary colloquial powers is tempted occasionally (and Johnson ever was) to throw out in conversation, as a theme for the display of his talents, and to make the vulgar admire the ingenuity with which he can confound the understanding with brilliant wit or artful sophistry: — but it surpasses the powers even of a Johnson to give it more than the *appearance* of reason, a shallow deceitful show of plausibility. When the faculties and affections of the human mind continue to be constant objects of attention and study, and when confessedly so much still remains for us to learn respecting their nature and the laws by which they are governed, it would be strange indeed if we had not also something still to learn respecting the most effectual means for their cultivation and improvement. Even if the purpose of education were merely to impart certain branches of knowledge, or certain practical arts, still it is evident that the method of doing this is itself an art, which must be susceptible of improvement by a continual reference of its rules to the principles of science on which they are founded: but the fact is, that the mere communication of knowledge is only one of the least important objects even of intellectual education; the real end of which is to promote the developement and cultivation of the intellectual powers, by the right application of which every individual afterward acquires for himself the greater part of that knowledge which is to be the guide of his conduct, or by which he is to be distinguished in life. Of *moral* education, the object is still more extensive and important.

In fact this strange notion is so far from being well founded, that, as scarcely any art is of greater value, so there is none which has been more essentially improved by the general diffusion of knowledge, and by more enlightened views of its proper

per objects; none which is more susceptible of continued improvement; nor any, in the practice of which we may derive more advantage from a careful attention to the results of our own observation and the detailed experience of others. On this account, we are always disposed to give a favourable reception to any attempt to communicate information on this most interesting subject; and to pay due honour to those who have undertaken to connect the soundest principles of mental philosophy with the dictates of good sense and enlightened judgment: directing their practical application in cultivating the mental faculties, — in disciplining the thoughts, affections, and desires, — and in placing them habitually on such objects as are most essentially conducive to the happiness both of the individual and of society. In this point of view, the labours of many distinguished writers have been attended by the most important benefits; not merely from the valuable information which they have imparted, and the many judicious hints and methods which they have suggested, but from the stimulus which they have given to the public mind in exciting many to reflect seriously on the subject, and to conduct this momentous business on enlightened and philosophical principles, who would otherwise have been contented to follow the beaten path allotted by prejudice, and by an implicit submission to authority.

Yet we have been assured of late that all our labours in this way are fruitless and visionary; and that education, after all, is a business which nature has not intrusted to our management. It has been said, Let parents and instructors do what they will, or neglect what they will, the institutions and customs and prejudices of society will thwart their plans or supply their deficiencies, and produce a sort of general average degree of intellectual and moral character, adapted to the station and state of society for which it is intended. Whatever may be the errors or follies displayed in that artificial education which is the result of direct instruction, there is a sort of *vis medicatrix naturæ* in the human mind, and in the constitution of human society, which will come into operation when a youth begins to mix in the world and to make his own observations; which will lead him to correct the false notions and abandon the injurious habits that his early education has tended to produce; and which, if it does not form a perfect character, will at least produce one better adapted to the peculiar circumstances of the community of which he is to be a member, than a mode of instruction which professes to keep clear of popular prejudices, and to proceed on more enlightened and scientific views of the nature of mind. On the other hand, whatever is attempted

attempted to be instilled in this way, it is asserted, will be infallibly counteracted and untaught through the operation of the same equalizing and levelling principle.

All this, we think, is another of those paradoxes which a lively writer is apt to bring forwards for the sake of saying something smart and striking, or of exciting admiration by the ingenuity with which he can give an air of plausibility to a position apparently contradictory to the ordinary notions of mankind. We presume that it will not be necessary for us to enter at length into its refutation. A doctrine which throws such a damp on all attempts at improvement in this most essential and important of all arts, and which offers such an excuse for idleness and indifference, by encouraging parents to persuade themselves that nature and society will take their unfinished work off their hands, and infallibly correct the evil consequences of their negligence, is fortunately not likely to meet with many serious defenders. At the same time, we readily admit and acknowledge with gratitude the existence of a "*vis medicatrix naturæ*" in the original constitution of the human mind, influenced by the circumstances in which it is placed; which may in many instances have a most beneficial effect in co-operating with a judicious, or counteracting the evil consequences of a bad, education; — but to argue from this admission that all improvements in education are visionary, and impracticable, is as absurd as if we were to pretend that, because a similar principle exerts a powerful efficacy in throwing off the sources of disease and restoring health and vigour to the bodily frame, it is in vain to look for any real or substantial improvement in the medical art. We do not conceive, moreover, as some would gladly persuade us, that it is either a visionary or an undesirable attempt to protect the youthful mind from the vulgar prejudices, the absurd notions, or the immoral practices, which prevail in the world.

The work before us does not now appear for the first time before the public; being in fact little more than a reprint, in a separate form, of three articles prepared by the author for Dr. Rees's New Cyclopædia, under the titles *Intellectual, Moral, and Physical Education*. So entirely has he still confined himself to the form as well as the matter of his contributions to that work, that the plural style usually adopted in such compilations is still retained; and even several verbal and other minute inaccuracies, which were observable in the Cyclopædia, appear also in the present volume. The author's various avocations, we are informed, have prevented him from executing his intention of new-modelling his remarks for separate publication; — a circumstance much to be regretted, both be-
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cause some imperfections of method and arrangement yet remain, necessarily arising out of the occasion of its original composition, which a revisal would have enabled him to correct; and because we are thus deprived, for the present at least, of the farther benefit which the public might have received from the communication of his more matured thoughts and additional experience on the subject. In the volume before us, Dr. C. has done enough in the cause of education to convince his readers that he is capable, under more favourable circumstances, of serving it still more essentially.

The order in which the three leading divisions of the work are arranged, which obviously arose not from any intrinsic propriety, but merely from the alphabetical plan of the *Cyclopædia*, does not appear to us by any means the best which could have been chosen. The order of time and of nature would have suggested that *physical* education should be placed first, as being necessarily the first object of attention in practice; — while the gradual and comparatively late developement of those powers and affections, the cultivation of which is the aim of *moral* education, and constitutes, indeed, the true perfection of human nature, — the ultimate object, from their tendency to promote which all other attainments derive their only real value, — would have formed a more suitable conclusion. To introduce this change in the arrangement, however, would have been attended by some trouble, on account of the frequent references in the latter part of the book to subjects already discussed in the preceding articles.

In the introduction, education in general is defined to be that series of impressions, whether intentional or accidental, by which the developement and cultivation of the various faculties and affections of the mind are affected. The *art* of education, however, properly so called, is limited to the cases in which the interference of man may modify or controul the effects of external circumstances: a controul, however, which is much more extensive than many are inclined to suppose; for, though it is perhaps in vain to pretend with some persons that every thing in the intellectual and moral system is the result of education, — since it is evident that the rudiments of disposition and capacity are different when we have first the power to observe them, and that impressions received within so short a period after birth cannot be supposed to produce all the diversity which is even then perceptible, — yet it is obvious that direct and intentional discipline can do much in exciting or repressing the sensibilities of the frame, in strengthening and exercising the mental powers, in extending and purifying the affections. The theory of education is nothing —
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more than the extension of one grand branch of mental philosophy; on an accurate acquaintance with which, a full, comprehensive, and just system of education can alone be founded.

Intellectual Education is stated to be 'that branch of education which respects the understanding considered in distinction from the affections and dispositions.' The author's observations on this part of his subject are arranged under the following heads; Sensation and Perception; Observation; Attention; Abstraction, considered both as a *habit* and as a *power*; Memory; Understanding; and Imagination.

The distinction between mere Sensation and Perception is well and accurately stated:

'By the law of association, many ideas, received directly from sensible objects through the medium of different senses, become connected, and at last blended together, so as to form one very complex, though apparently uncompounded, idea; and this complex idea is often recalled to the mind by a corresponding sensation; and by association it becomes so connected with that sensation, that the complex idea itself is often mistaken for a part of the sensation. For instance, the sensation produced by the impression made by a globe on the sense of sight, is, as can be proved, nothing more than that produced by a circle, with certain variations of light and shade: yet, immediately on the sensation being received, the ideas of the solidity of the object, of its hardness, of its magnitude, and of its being something external to oneself, (all of which have been derived from the sense of touch, in connection with this object, or others in some respect similar,) immediately rise up in the mind in one blended form: by their complete coalescence they appear to be one; and by their immediate and constant connection with the sensation, they appear to the mind as a part of the sensation.

'The sensation thus connected with the complex idea is the perception: and by the faculty of *perception* we understand that compound power, (or rather combination of powers,) by which perceptions are received from external objects. The accuracy and vividness of the sensation depend upon the sensitive power and its organs; the accuracy and vividness of the perception depend partly upon the accuracy and vividness of the component sensations, and partly upon the activity of the retentive and associative powers.'

In cultivating the habit of Observation, therefore, we must consider not merely the acuteness of the organs of sense, but also the cultivation of the judgment and the associations which become connected with the objects of sense.

'To *observe* is not merely to see, but to see so as to perceive *that*, whatever it be, of which the ever-active principle of association has made the visual sensation the symbol or index; and the more the observation is well employed, the more will
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be brought into the view of the mind by these sensations which to another would not lead on one link in the chain of thought.' P. 31.

By the habit of Abstraction, is meant the devotement of the attention to some objects of thought, exclusively of others, and also of impressions from external objects. This habit is more or less necessary to all; and, though different minds may originally be very differently constituted in respect to the facility of forming it, yet in every case it will be found susceptible of cultivation and improvement. There are two ways of promoting this end; the one by rendering the mind habitually inattentive to those objects which are not to occupy it, the other by making it ordinarily attentive to those which from any cause obtain the preference. Of these methods, Dr. C. decidedly prefers the latter, though, in the early periods of education, it ought rather to be attempted indirectly than directly; by inducing a child to recollect carefully in order to relate accurately what he has seen, or by leading him to think on some of the simple truths of religion, &c. It is one advantage of the pursuit of knowledge, that it frequently requires fixed attention to the objects of thought without aid from the sensations; and perhaps it would be advisable, with a view to the cultivation of this power, to render the occasions for its exercise in this way more frequent in literary and scientific education.

In the chapter on Memory, most of the questions which arise on the best methods of cultivating this faculty, and on which apparently discordant opinions have been maintained, are ably and judiciously treated. In very early life, the memory is most effectually cultivated indirectly, by promoting an habitual attention to the objects of sensation; for it is obvious that an accurate perception is the first requisite to correctness of recollection. This appears to be the object which should be principally attempted in the early exercises of the memory; since early habits of inaccuracy in this respect are frequently seen to have a most injurious influence on the moral as well as the intellectual character. How far it is desirable to exercise the memory in the recollection of *words*, not connected in the mind with any ideas, or at least not with adequate ideas, has been the subject of much dispute; and the decision of this point appears to us to depend, in a great measure, on the previous inquiry whether the words in question are mere unmeaning sounds, never intended to be used as the signs of ideas, or are only laid up in store, as it were, to become the symbols of that knowledge which is *afterward to be acquired*. In the former case, considering the
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variety of intrinsically useful objects on which the memory may be exercised, no one can reasonably doubt that it is altogether a superfluous labour: — but, on the latter and more reasonable supposition, it would not be difficult to shew that, in many instances, a previous familiarity with the signs is materially conducive to the acquisition of the things signified, and also tends to facilitate the distinct conception as well as the ready recollection and application of the knowledge so acquired. On this principle, the usual practice of making boys commit to memory Latin rules of syntax and prosody, which at the time are but very imperfectly if at all understood, admits of a strong vindication.

‘Words,’ says Dr. C., ‘continually stand for many thoughts; and short combinations of them frequently imply trains of reasoning: but it is often sufficient, for the purposes of education, and indeed all that is desirable, that the memory should suggest such combinations, and afford the impression of their accuracy, without the exercise of the understanding to show the truth of them.’

‘Two instances will illustrate our meaning. The common rule of algebraic multiplication, “Like signs give plus, and unlike signs give minus,” is in itself considered almost without meaning, and understood literally involves an absurdity: and we would never teach it to a boy, without first showing him that it is a convenient abridgment of a number of operations in algebraic multiplication, all of which are well-founded: but when he has once seen the universality of its application, we would then lead him to employ it without hesitation, and even without thought as to its meaning; of course, however, recommending that he should never reason from it, but resort to the facts themselves as the foundation of inferences respecting the nature and combinations of algebraic quantities. But to take a more familiar instance; in common multiplication, where the multiplier consists of several digits, we are directed to place the first figure of each product under the digit by which we multiply. Nothing can be easier, when the effect of multiplication by 10, 100, &c., and the nature of our numeration are well understood, than to understand the reason and meaning of the direction; but we should not wish that the pupil should continually revert to this explanation; it is sufficient if he remember the fact distinctly, and at the time when it is wanted; and it would only serve to embarrass, if the rationale were to be constantly brought into view.’

‘Leaving out of consideration all the intercourses of life, in which the ready recollection of words is often the source of so much interest and delight, there is still another point of view in which we feel the importance of the habit of recollecting words readily and accurately. Ideas fade from the memory much sooner when they are not connected with words. In sickness, and often in old age, the reasoning powers become languid; and the vigour of the mind, which would supply a succession of interesting thoughts,

thoughts, is lost under the pressure of disease or gradual decay. In such circumstances the mind dwells upon the present impressions of pain, or weakness, and can scarcely raise itself above them; but if the memory have been well stored, in the early part of life, with useful and interesting combinations of words, they will often recur, at such periods, without an effort, and without fatigue, and furnish objects of thought which will soothe and even cheer. Those who are subject to any degree of mental depression, disabling them from active efforts to point out a channel for their thoughts, often find such suggestions of the memory an important relief to them. And we need not say to those of our readers who have a religious turn of mind, that these remarks are peculiarly applicable to those devotional compositions and expressions, which, where they have been early and deeply impressed on the mind, occur at the call of association to support, to strengthen, and to comfort; and which, thus suggested by the memory, have in innumerable instances allayed the emotions of passion and desire, or poured balm into the wounded heart.

The first part concludes with some very judicious remarks on the effects which the common objects of instruction produce on the understanding; in which the author states, we think, very correctly, the comparative advantages to be expected from the various pursuits that usually occupy young persons, as the dead languages, geography, natural history, mathematics, natural philosophy, composition, &c.: — but for these we must refer to the work, where they are detailed with great correctness and perspicuity, and with so much conciseness that it would be difficult to abridge them without injustice.

Connected with this discussion is an Appendix, containing a translation of a curious essay by Professor Pictet of Geneva, on the study of the dead languages as the universal medium of education; which, notwithstanding its ingenuity, and many judicious observations undoubtedly included in it, we are surprised to see inserted here, because it appears to us to lead to a conclusion in some measure contradictory to that of the present author. The object of this essay is to vindicate the practice of the college or public grammar-school of Geneva, in which Latin and Greek, *but nothing else*, are taught to the youth of a commercial city: most of whom, having no occasion afterward for this sort of knowledge, presently forget all that they have learnt. In defence of this practice, M. Pictet undertakes to prove that, whatever be the destination of the pupils, this is the most suitable mode of instruction; and that, "if by some prodigy a scholar should find himself, on leaving school, suddenly bereft of all he had learnt, so as not to remember a single word of Latin or Greek, provided he might

might retain his faculties in the same state of developement and perfection they had attained at the moment of this change, this scholar, ignorant as he would be left, would probably be better educated and better prepared for whatever vocation he might be destined to in life, than any other boy of his age to whom the best possible education with the exclusion of Latin and Greek had been given, and who should moreover have the advantage of having lost nothing of the ideas he had acquired." This, we think, is going one step farther than is usual with the advocates of classical education; most of whom have been contented to rest their defence of its universal adoption on the intrinsic excellence and utility of antient literature. The argument, by which it is attempted to establish this proposition, appears to us a very ingenious *jeu d'esprit*; evidently deriving all its plausibility from an exaggerated statement and application of a principle which is just in itself, but which surely requires to be materially modified before it may be adopted as our guide in practical education. The principle is, that the object of education is *not* to communicate this or that branch of knowledge, but to promote the developement of the intellectual powers in general, by means of such exercises as may excite the attention, strengthen the memory, bring into action the reasoning faculty, or improve and refine the taste and imagination. That this is *one* object of education will be readily admitted: but it will not, therefore, be granted that it is the only one; or that we have so much time to throw away in early life, that it should be a matter of indifference whether this object be attained by diverting the pupil to the acquisition of that which is afterward to be applied to some useful practical purpose, or of that which, *according to this supposition*, is of no intrinsic utility, and is consequently no sooner learnt than it is neglected and forgotten. It would be foreign to our purpose to enter into a detailed examination of this argument; and it will be sufficient to observe that it tends, after all, to establish a proposition materially different from that with which the writer commenced. Having assumed, *first*, that it is necessary or desirable that all the children of a large city should be collected together into one establishment, under the authority of the state, — and *then* that it is impossible to preserve the necessary system and regularity in such an institution, unless all the children (let their talents, dispositions, or destination be what they may,) are conducted through one unvarying routine, and their attention devoted exclusively to one pursuit, — he endeavours to shew that no other single study, to which the attention of boys could be *wholly* directed, would attain that which

was above stated to be one principal object of intellectual education nearly so well as the dead languages. We are inclined to think that he has succeeded in establishing this last point: but it is evidently necessary to his purpose that he should also make out the two former, which are much more questionable, though he has contented himself with taking them both for granted. We beg, however, that we may not be so far misunderstood as to be supposed to undervalue the excellence and utility of classical literature, for which we have ever been strong advocates: — but we should choose rather to vindicate its introduction as a leading branch of early education, on the ground of its intrinsic importance; and we should certainly hesitate, before we acceded to the singular position that the powers of the mind cannot be fully developed, and fitted for the occupations of active life, unless six or eight years of youth are devoted to an acquisition which is immediately afterward to be neglected and forgotten.

Dr. Carpenter's Second Part treats of moral and more especially of religious education. Without meaning any disparagement to the other two divisions of the work, in both of which we find much that is highly excellent, and very little (if any thing) that is objectionable, we have no hesitation in characterizing this as the most valuable portion of the volume. Indeed, we do not know any book on education in which this part of the subject is treated with so much judgment and ability; with such satisfactory minuteness of detail; and on such pure, enlightened, and, in the best sense of the word, evangelical principles. In every page, we are led to admire the judicious application of those principles in the practical regulation of the affections; the sound views of the nature of the human mind which are every where evinced; and, above all, the spirit of Christian philosophy which animates and adorns the whole. Other valuable treatises exist in which the general views and principles that should be carefully borne in mind on this subject have been judiciously stated: but we recollect few if any in which those views and principles have been followed out into such fullness and variety of detail, or in which the practical inferences deduced from them might be so thoroughly recommended.

The general object of moral education scarcely requires a definition. It obviously comprizes those circumstances, intentional or accidental, which influence the growth and direction of the affections, an accurate perception of moral distinctions, a prevailing sense of duty, and more especially the cultivation of those feelings which have an immediate reference to the relation that man bears to his Maker. The first point in
moral

moral education seems to be the due cultivation of the filial affections, the analysis of which is well stated by Dr. C. :

‘What may with propriety be termed the *natural* affection of children towards their parents, (arising without the exercise of reflection at all, merely by the operation of the associative principle,) is, we apprehend, almost always the strongest towards the mother; at least if she has also been the nurse: and as the pleasurable feelings of infancy do greatly contribute their share towards the formation of more complex pleasures, and as they cannot be replaced but by a long series of exertions, a mother who wishes to possess the highest degree of her children's affection, and the greatest influence in the regulation of their conduct and dispositions, must also be their nurse. We have often heard of what are called the *instinctive* feelings of filial affection. The term instinct, when applied to the human mind, we regard as a mere appeal to ignorance; but we have no doubt that the early associated feelings towards a parent, particularly towards a mother, may exist long after the direct recollection of her has altogether ceased, and that the sight of her, after long absence, may produce strong emotions in the mental frame, though the memory furnishes no distinct traces of her visible appearance, her tones, &c.; and though no communication is made respecting her relationship to the individual. We are not disposed to treat all stories of parental or filial sympathies as fabulous: the nature of the human mind is indisputably such, that the trains of association may be set in motion, without the direct exercise of the understanding, and often without the individual perceiving why the object so affects him.’—

‘It is a difficult medium to observe, between unnecessary approaches towards austerity on the one hand, and weak indulgence on the other; and it requires no small degree of mental regulation, on the part of the parent, to preserve it: but where the aim of the judicious parent is steadily directed to the future, while at the same time he endeavours to make the period of childhood the period of natural simple pleasure, there is no great danger of his going far wrong. He will often be called upon to give up his own gratification (for to an affectionate parent, it must ever be gratifying to promote even the present pleasures of his children); but if his affection deserve the name, if in fact it be not a mere fondness more childish than perhaps he would like to own, though they cannot look beyond the present moment, he will; and whenever he perceives that the gratification of their wishes, whether in the way of obtaining direct pleasure, or avoiding something which is painful, would be attended with injurious consequences upon their health or comfort, upon their temper or habit of obedience, there he ought to be firm but mild in his requisitions.

‘If, indeed, there be one thing more than another which constitutes the secret of education, in all periods of it, but most particularly in the earliest period, it is mild consistent firmness on the part of the parent; and where this quality is possessed habitually, or is at least employed in intercourse with our children, and guided

in its operations by sound views as to the moral structure of the mind, the best effects may be expected on their temper, their happiness, and their worth of character.'

We have afterward a very excellent view of the practical laws of the affections in general, proceeding (we think) on a just and correct theory of the nature and laws of the human mind: particularly of the mode in which the mental pleasures and pains are formed by association from the pleasures and pains of sense, and gradually developed and matured by the influence of education and experience. Into all the details of this theory, founded chiefly on the Hartleyan doctrine of association, it is probable that many of Dr. C.'s readers will not be prepared to enter: — but, whatever they may think of his theoretical principles, they will seldom be disposed to find fault with his practical conclusions. At the same time, though their own good sense will in general enable them to perceive the propriety of these conclusions, yet in our opinion their conception of the whole subject will not fail to be rendered much more satisfactory and distinct, if they should take the pains to familiarize themselves with those enlightened views of mental philosophy with which they are connected, and from which they are deduced by the author. Of these views, and their practical application as stated in this part of the work, we shall not undertake any thing like a regular analysis, which would scarcely be practicable within our confined limits; and which is the less necessary, because our object is not so much to give a complete view of the treatise, as to induce our readers to avail themselves of its copious stores of valuable information and instruction at the fountain-head.

On the difficult subject of Punishment, we have these remarks:

'In order to prevent the rise, or to check the growth of any disposition which we conceive to be injurious to the individual, we must avoid the original expressions tending to give birth to it, and to lead to the recurrence of its excitement; and we must aim to produce suitable associations of a painful nature with its exercise. The more our plans are directed for the prevention of wrong dispositions and habits, the better; and the same must be said where they can be properly restrained, by simply avoiding their excitement. Still, however, cases must occur, in which the correction of them must be brought about through the medium of bodily and mental pain; and the great point is, so to proportion the degree of punishment, and to regulate the manner of it, that it shall not exceed the necessity of the circumstances, and that it may bring into exercise no other wrong feelings.

'Disgrace, privation, restraints upon liberty, and corporal pain, all of which probably may, in different circumstances, be employed
with

with advantage, have all their peculiar inconveniences and ill consequences. The fear of shame is a most powerful motive to action, and indeed not uncommonly more powerful than the desire of praise; and it is of great consequence that this feeling should exist in the mind with a tolerable degree of vigour; since it is a very important auxiliary of the moral principle, and will sometimes serve to supply its deficiencies: but if it be too much employed, it loses its sensibility, or becomes perverted, or else it acquires an excessive degree of power, and makes the conduct and happiness of life so much dependent upon the opinion of others, as to render these exceedingly unsteady. The fear of shame constitutes an essential ingredient, in what is commonly termed a regard to character; and among the lower classes of society it should be encouraged, we had almost said, without limit, because there are so many causes continually operating among them, particularly in the present periods of difficulty and distress, to reduce it within narrow limits, or to destroy it altogether; and the want of it is, in all cases, greatly to be regretted. Like most other valuable principles, however, it is liable to great abuse, and to an injurious direction: and it is greatly to be feared, that in the usual systems of public education it is thus abused; since, from the prevalent modes of punishment, it is less excited by what ought certainly to be the chief source of it, the having merited punishment and being in consequence exposed to it, than by the want of fortitude in bearing it. When disgrace is employed, it should be associated only with conduct which is really disgraceful; and it should be proportioned to the degree of impropriety or baseness observed: and we should be peculiarly careful that we do not deaden the fear of it, by exciting it too frequently, or on occasions in which it is merely factitious. If a parent is continually making trifles the subject of disgrace, the sense of shame must either become excessively inordinate in its influence, or children will lose it altogether; both which effects are earnestly to be deprecated. —

‘ Respecting corporal pain, we have no hesitation in saying that experience has compelled us to give up our theories against it. We are now satisfied that there are dispositions which are much less injured by this kind of punishment, than by any other which would be effectual. And we are further convinced, that in the earliest periods of childhood, before the time when the mind can be properly influenced by moral motives, corporal pain, sparingly but firmly administered, will often be of much more service, and do much less harm, than any other species of punishment. If this be employed at that early period, to overcome the rudiments of obstinate disobedience, (which is the only case in which we have occasion to perceive its expediency,) it will save a great deal of punishment of a different description in the later periods of education. Perhaps, if parents were able to undertake the sole management of the education of infancy, it might justly be attributed to themselves, if such punishment were ever necessary; but, as circumstances usually are, a great part of the work of education consists in endeavouring to destroy dispositions and

associations which the ignorance or carelessness of others have produced. We are not disposed to think that falsehood, selfish injustice, &c. should in childhood be made the ground of corporal punishment; these will, in general, be better punished by their natural consequences, which may even then be brought into view. But where habits of this decidedly immoral nature have been suffered to gain great strength, and have been carried on to the period of early youth; where the sense of shame has scarcely any power, and the natural inconveniences of those habits may be comparatively easily avoided; there (and also in cases of careless perverse disobedience) the rudiments of moral discipline and feeling may, we think, be advantageously begun by severe corporal punishment. We have known such cases; and experience has led to our conclusion. When such means are resorted to, it would be cruelty to employ them slightly. They should be regulated in such a way as to afford the individual no support from sympathy, and yet be impressive to others. And their whole accompaniments should give them a real importance in the estimation of all concerned.

The important distinction between the acquisition of religious knowledge, and the cultivation of religious habits and affections, is very well stated in the ensuing passage:

'Religious truths are those which immediately respect the character of God, and his dealings with mankind. *Religious affections* are those which gradually rise up in the mind from impressions, or reflections, respecting the character and dealings of God; for instance, gratitude for his goodness, awe of his power, reverence for his greatness and knowledge, fear of his displeasure, desire of his approbation, obedience to his will, confidence in his wisdom and mercy. When religious truths are accompanied with the corresponding religious affections, and thereby influence the conduct, they are called *religious principles*; and the affections themselves, when they influence the conduct, are also called religious principles. A man cannot be said to have religious *principles*, merely because he believes there is a God, and has right ideas as to his character and dealings. Religious truth may be possessed, without its influencing the heart and life; and when that is the case, a man cannot truly be said to be a religious man, nor his principles religious. Whatever those opinions and desires are, which influence the dispositions and the conduct, those are our principles; and if they are inconsistent with religion, or at least have nothing to do with religion, we are not religious, and cannot be said to live religiously.

It appears desirable to mention these things, plain as they certainly are, because many, it is to be feared, imagine that they are giving their children religious *principles* when they are only teaching them religious *truths*. If these influence the conduct, it must be by their exciting hopes and fears, desire and love: if awe and reverence, love and gratitude, the desire to please, and fear to offend, be not produced in the youthful heart, it is of comparatively
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little consequence that we teach them to repeat, or even to understand, the most important truths respecting God.

‘Religious knowledge may exist without religious affections; and it is perhaps because this distinction is not sufficiently observed, that so many unhappily suppose that religious principle is *easily* acquired, and even that it will come of itself. Where the understanding is tolerably well cultivated, a considerable degree of religious knowledge may be gained by any one without much trouble. We have only to read our Bibles, and we must learn from them the most important truths. We have only to frequent the house of religious worship and instruction, or read such books as are accessible to almost every one, and we shall be able to gain pretty clear and accurate views as to the import, and extent, and connection of those truths. All this is very useful, and it is an excellent foundation for right affections; and it serves to strengthen and enliven them, where they have been formed: but all will not do without the affections themselves.

‘Perhaps it may be truly said, that a young person, of a good understanding, and a ready retentive memory, may gain, by a day’s instruction, an acquaintance with all the grand leading truths of religion. But will any one affirm, that thus the love and fear of God may be acquired, as habitual affections of the mind; that thus they may be made actuating principles of the conduct? Daily experience must convince us, that it is only by careful and long-continued cultivation of those affections, that we can give them sufficient power to enable them to regulate our conduct and dispositions; and this even where they have happily been early and successfully implanted by wise and religious parents and friends: and experience must convince us how difficult this cultivation becomes, where it has been early and long neglected; and this in proportion to the degree in which it has been neglected, in proportion to the degree in which our prevailing habits and dispositions are consistent or inconsistent with religious principle.’

Some late writers on practical education, from a want of sufficient attention to the distinction here laid down, have discouraged the attempt to impress religious principles on the youthful mind, till the understanding has arrived at some degree of maturity. So far are we from assenting to this doctrine, that we fully agree with the sentiment of an amiable and excellent devotional writer, that a child ought not to be able to remember the time when he had not the idea of a Supreme Being. That such notions would be very inadequate is true:—but this may be said of the idea formed of their Maker by the most exalted of his creatures. In fact, it would seem that some sort or degree of religious feeling is the unavoidable result of the circumstances in which we are placed, operating on the original constitution of our frame. This being the case, it is obvious that it must be extremely important to endeavour, at the earliest period of education, to give these cir-

cumstances their proper influence and direction; and by conversation, precept, and example, to use every practicable method of imbuing the infant mind with suitable conceptions of the Divine Being. As it is in vain to expect that it will remain devoid of such ideas, it is therefore of the first consequence that all possible pains should be taken to render them rational and precise; and not only so, but to impress them carefully on the mind, to connect them with its warmest and best affections, and thus convert them into habitual principles of action.

We have spoken, we perceive, of the necessary and *unavoidable* production of these feelings in the mind, and the consequent importance of giving them their suitable direction, in language which might seem to imply that this was recommended under the idea of making a virtue of necessity; and that, since we have not our pupil in the state that we could desire, we must make the best of the circumstances in which we find him. This is an impression, however, which we should be most anxious to correct; for it is surely a signal mark of the Divine wisdom and goodness, that the origin of these feelings and principles is not left altogether to positive instruction, but that our original frame, and the necessary influence of the circumstances in which we are placed on that frame, inevitably lead to their formation in the mind. Happy they in whom these precious buds have been properly nourished and cultivated, and ripened into valuable fruit!

The principles which we have here stated, with respect to the importance of beginning early the business of religious education, in order to instil into the youthful mind a *practical* faith in the great doctrines of religion, and to give them the influence which they ought to exercise in the cultivation and government of the affections, are uniformly acknowledged by Dr. C.; and all his recommendations in this division of his subject appear to be founded on and suggested by them. We are gratified also to observe that, in these practical details, he has usually effected the difficult task of steering clear of all obnoxious and controverted dogmata; though to succeed in this endeavour must have been the more difficult, and is therefore the more commendable, when we consider that Dr. C. has at all times taken a leading part among the controversial champions of the sect to which he belongs. The truth is, (and we have reason to rejoice that it is so,) that the practical value and efficacy of the Christian faith have comparatively little connection with these controversies, and are founded on principles in which nearly all sects are expressly or virtually agreed. Accordingly, we see very little in any
part

part of this treatise which can fail to be acceptable to a candid sober-minded Christian of any denomination; though it is certain that a quick-sighted theologian would presently discover in the nature of the references, and from an indescribable something in the general style, what he would probably call the *deficiencies* of Dr. C.'s creed.

Part III. treats of Physical Education, or 'that branch which respects the care and culture of the bodily powers, considered in reference to their subserviency to the mental powers, and the influence of the state of them upon the mind.' — Into the discussion of various interesting subjects connected with this department of education, Dr. C. enters with his usual minuteness of detail, and, on the whole, with his usual ability and judgment. We are, however, inclined to suspect that he sometimes attaches an excessive importance to certain favourite maxims and regulations, and occasionally builds too much on authority; particularly on that of Dr. Beddoes, who was certainly a man of very eminent professional talents, but prone to hasty generalization and exaggerated statements; and not seldom allowing an imagination unusually lively and fervid to outrun his judgment. We can freely say, however, that in all these discussions we discern the same scrupulous conscientiousness, the same sound and philosophical views of the constitution of human nature, with the same purity and strictness of Christian morality, which eminently distinguish the preceding parts of the work; — and though, perhaps, some incidental remarks may be open to objection, no judicious parent or teacher can read this view of physical education without deriving from it valuable information and instruction. In fine, we cannot close our report of this work without again recommending it to the notice of our readers, as one of the most valuable manuals of practical education hitherto presented to the public.

ART. V. *Sketches from St. George's Fields.* By Giorgione di Castel Chiuso. Second Series. Crown 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Stodart. 1821.

WE bestowed due praise, as we considered it, on the former series of this lively little set of poems, in our Number for June, 1820. We were also led, by local circumstances and temporary indications, to attribute them to a well-known political author, orator, and patriot: but we are told that our conjecture was erroneous; or at least the writer would make it appear so. Be this as it may, he acknowledges that to him
(i. e.

(i. e. the present author) we are indebted for another clever poem, noticed in our same Number, *A Queen's Appeal*.—Whoever, then, he may be, he has considerable merit in his *bounded sphere*; in the 'Castel Chiuso' of his own selection: for that he is a voluntary, or rather imaginary, inhabitant of that closed and uncomfortable castle, we see various reasons to believe. We shall hazard, however, no more conjectures, but proceed immediately to the light task before us.

Various passages in this second series from 'St. George's Fields' remind us of some of the later and feebler poems of Crabbe; and the subjects, indeed, are often nearly as poetical as those of the great *versifier of prose-matters* here mentioned. We cannot, however, for an instant, submit to the possible imputation of undervaluing the real merits of such a writer as Crabbe; and therefore (to prevent mis-interpretation) we add that, in the name which we have ventured to bestow on him, we confine ourselves to a censure of his frequent choice of absolutely unpoetical subjects, and meddle not with his admirable Dutch painting, his minutely excellent execution of them. The disciples of his school are becoming numerous; and, if we intend or wish in this 19th century to preserve any thing like the established distinctions of poetry and prose, and not to throw both the theory and the practice of our ancestors *into the shade*, we must oppose that school with every engine of argument or ridicule that can be made to bear upon it; except in those rare cases, in which the genius of the pupil shall place him on a level of privilege with the master, and induce us to forgive *him* also in all *his* violations of taste, propriety, consistency, and we know not what else, for the sake of that one overwhelming quality of *energy*, which covers the multitude of sins in the three *founders* of the three *modern* schools of verse. It is, in a word, this quality which blinds us to the unprofitable abstractions in our moral descriptive founder, Lord Byron. It is this quality which pervades and animates the rude amplification of a ballad in Sir Walter Scott. It is this quality which raises above the hospital, the fish-market, and the country-club, the village-prostitute, and the poacher, that wonder-working muse of Crabbe. So is it the *want* of this quality which causes the whole host of their several followers to *founder* instead of *found*, and to leave the disenchanted mind of the reader at full liberty to analyze the false principles on which the school itself is supported: opening the way to a healthy, happy return to sense; to a glowing, general admiration of the great classical names in all ages and countries; and to a just selection of splendid passages from their ingenious but unequal successors.

' Amid the ocean tide, with sudden shock,
Falls from the beetling cliff a mound of rock ;
It falls — not far around the circle spreads,
In which the dancing billows move their heads ;
Even near the mass the waves their wonted course
Pursue, unconscious of the mighty force.
Upon your garden-pond, ring after ring
Spreads o'er its face, a pebble if you fling ;
A fly, a feather, or the least of straws
Disturbs the water in a china vase.

' Who knows what mischief one malignant heart
In such a place to many may impart ?
What doubt, suspicion, and embittered hate,
Loose gossips of the babbling tongue create ?
And even here is coward Slander found,
That steals behind the back unseen to wound.

' A busy meddling wretch, with double face,
And poisonous tongue, infested once the place ;
A sentenced libeller, on whom was spent
In vain the Law's severest punishment :
Even here his toil of mischief never ceased ;
It grieves me much to add — he was a priest.
But little had he learnt from that pure word
His flock, I trust, with more of profit heard :
Peace was not in his heart, where'er he came
From Discord's torch burst ever forth the flame :
To scatter round the seeds of hate and spite,
And sever friendship, seemed his chief delight :
While here he staid a fever seemed to fall
On every heart, each cup was dashed with gall :
No day was free from open strife, no hour
But bore complaint before the seat of power.
Beneath the heaped appeals the Marshal groaned,
And often wished his state could be disowned.
This wretch, tho' vicious, never failed to urge
Upon the slightest fault the sharpest scourge.
'Gainst gallantry he rail'd, yet kept an imp
Scarce entered on his teens in pay as pimp.
Pure as a satyr, decent as a hog,
Brave as a hare, and modest as a dog,
He spared no weakness, but with savage glee
Yelled o'er such faults as goodness will not see.
He went — the very turnkeys blessed the day
That took so pestilent a thing away :
As by a spell contention seemed to cease ;
Awhile we wondered, and " the land had peace."
O hills of Devon ! ne'er did Plymouth coach
With direr freight your sunny slopes approach,
That down the road was carried, on the morn
That saw the irreverend priest from London borne.'

We are not aware that, with respect to *character-painting*, we could have made a more favourable impression on the author's readers than by this selection :— which, in truth, betrays as little coarseness, or insipidity, as any passage of the volume. While, however, we praise in part and condemn in part, we must, without any mitigation of approval, utterly reprobate some of the little vignettes and tail-pieces. Fiends, gnawing the shoulders of naked human victims twined around them, are horrid imaginations; lamentable proofs of a corrupted taste, as we are willing solely to consider them. Still we should not render ample justice to this imitator (conscious or unconscious) of Crabbe*, unless we represented the counterpart to this description of a vile inmate of the *King's Bench* †, in a very soothing and even elegant picture of the *distress of a gentleman*! — But, oh! ye gods, what subjects for *verse*, — ideal, exalted *verse*, are these! Yet much is made of them in what follows; or, rather, we are wholly carried out of them to other scenes, and better hours. The author is supposed to visit the apartments of a friend, when they are recalled to their early amusements by the paintings on the prison-walls:

‘ Among the drawings hung about his room
To gild, as I believed, a prison's gloom,
One oft, I knew not why, my glance had passed;
But now, informed, o'er all an eye I cast.
It was a close and simple scene, but such
As spoke it nature's copy in each touch;
Two youthful alders o'er a limpid stream,
Deep in its shade, but quivering to the beam
Where the gay ripples to the daylight sprung,
Their shade in graceful combination flung;
Beyond the stream, of steps an easy flight
Led up to paths, where lovers with delight
'Mid cool sequester'd groves and grots might stray,
Nor count the hours that slip, unmarked, away.
Upon the hither side was seen to float,
Moored lightly to the trees, a little boat:
More plainly never paths appeared to say,
“ Come to our shades;” nor boat to cry, “ You may.”

* In another portion of the work, ‘ I Fugitivi, or *The Bolters*,’ Scott is imitated; in some passages, Rogers; and in others, Byron. *Sic vivitur*.

† What would our ancestors have thought of whole volumes, *illustrated with cuts*, on such a subject! Would they not have been disposed to exclaim with the satirist —

— “ *morantur
Pauci ridiculum, et fugientem ex urbe pudorem?*”

Alas ! tho' many an eye this scene has view'd
 Careless, or pleas'd, 'tis misery's bitter food.
 I mark'd the figures that the date denote,
 Traced by Fitzalban's hand upon the boat.
 It tells the year when, after many past
 In warring hopes and fears, came joy at last ;
 And full consent at length the passion crown'd,
 On which an adverse parent long had frown'd.
 These are the walks thro' which, by Derwent's side,
 With blest Fitzalban strayed his blushing bride :
 That is the boat that bore them down the stream,
 'Mid rock and grove, not then their only theme.
 What more for torment could my friend devise,
 Than such a scene placed here before his eyes ?
 Yet these are pledges that his mind retains
 True feeling 'midst these self-inflicted pains ;
 These dear memorials, ever in his sight,
 Are stars that guide him thro' a dreary night,
 And while they wake the thoughts that pierce his soul,
 Prove he still bows to Nature's right control.'

A delightful little sketch concludes this happy, though unhappy, love-scene ; and we can only smile with pleasure to find such "green spots," even in an imaginary panorama of the *King's Bench* ! " *Your Papa's Bench* !" as Delpini called it.

The author has not fairly dealt with us in his preface, p. viii. We did not attribute his *Queen's Appeal* to Sir W. Scott, but merely stated the report which we had heard to that effect ; and at the end of the article we subjoined our perfect conviction that it was an untrue filiation.

ART. VI. *Travels in the Interior of Africa*, to the Sources of the Senegal and Gambia ; performed by Command of the French Government, in the Year 1818. By G. Mollien. Edited by T. E. Bowdich, Esq. Conductor of the Mission to Ashantee. 4to. pp. 380. Eight Plates. Two Guineas, Boards. Colburn. 1820.

IT appears to us probable that the title-page of this volume may, though unintentionally, mislead the reader as to the real extent of M. Mollien's six months' tour in the interior of Africa. Travels to the sources of the rivers Senegal and Gambia seem to imply some knowledge of the course of those streams, derived from actual investigation, although no such promise is literally expressed : for the identities of a river in a country little explored are rather equivocal, when it has been seen only at the two points of its mouth and its presumed source. Of this latter nature, however, is M. Mollien's exploit

exploit as it regards the Senegal. Let us presume a traveller in England to take his place in the cross-mail from Bath to Oxford, and, on arriving near Cirencester, to walk a few miles till he comes to the Thames head; he will then have performed a feat very similar to that of the French traveller, though in a much less distance and with far less personal inconvenience. If any prior opportunity should have occurred to him of viewing this same river at Gravesend, the two cases, as far as the mere knowledge of the rivers is concerned, will be quite analogous. With regard to the Gambia; indeed, the engraved route, of which the veracity is or ought to be unquestionable, describes M. Mollien to have been very near it, more than once, but never within some few miles of its banks, except on one occasion, when he absolutely went down to it and crossed it: after which, by an overland-journey, he arrived at the urn itself of the river-god, who is a very near neighbour indeed to his brother of the Senegal. Thus, then, by pursuing a route between the courses of these two streams, usually at a vast distance from each, for the purpose of arriving at their sources, the traveller remained in real fact utterly unacquainted with either. Something of an odd fancy altogether appears in this gentleman, resulting possibly from a laudable anxiety to fulfil his instructions to the greatest extent: for he has also had the kindness to remove the source of the Niger, — which he does not profess to have seen within a decent visiting distance of those of the other two rivers, — about fifty French leagues, as the crow flies. We are supposed to have been hitherto mistaken by something more than two degrees of longitude; and accordingly this matter is set right in M. Mollien's chart, but on authority which appears to us wholly inconclusive. Both the Senegal and the Gambia, throughout their courses, abound in sinuosities great and small, (*"recreatis ludunt in undis,"* as Ovid says,) in a most picturesque manner on the face of the chart: but, as these lines are drawn from other works, we may suppress the smile that naturally arises at such a semblance of accurate delineation, attached to a volume of which the author does not pretend to have seen any portion that the graphic artist has represented. The new part of the Niger, indeed, — which, as far as its course is concerned, can be little else than purely imaginative, — is modestly represented as straight as an arrow that marks the course of a sea-current.

M. Mollien himself was one of the crew of the French frigate *Medusa*, which was lost; and the circumstances attending which are too fresh, and probably too deeply marked, in public recollection, to require any repetition here. He was among

among those 'who betook themselves to a boat, and reached the shore without accident.' He describes his own ardour in the cause of African discovery as very vivid: but in his mode of expressing it, unwittingly, he does not much raise the reader's opinion of his qualifications for such a task. The fatigues which he had undergone, he says, in reaching the Senegal from the place of landing after shipwreck, and the wild aspect of the country, could not destroy this zeal; nor could he believe that the sterility which he had seen 'prevailed in those regions, where Leo Africanus had placed cities of considerable magnitude. The discoveries of Mungo Park had convinced him of the truth of the Arabian writer; and, far from apprehending that he should find uninhabitable deserts, or a ferocious people, he hoped to meet with civilized nations, the relics of Egyptian or Carthaginian colonies.'

While M. Mollien was indulging in such visions as these, we are surprized that he did not also cherish the expectation of finding old *Prester John* still alive, in one of the numerous Mesopotamias which his map exhibits. — With regard to Mungo Park's confirmations of Leo Africanus, we would suggest to him an old Greek epigram that is much to the purpose :

Οὐ τὸ λεγεῖν παράσημα, καὶ Ἀτλικά ῥήματα πένης,
 Ευζήλως ἔσι καὶ φρονίμως μελεῖαν.
 'Οὐδὲ γὰρ εἰ Καρκαίρε, καὶ εἰ Κοναβεῖ, το τε Σίζειι,
 Καὶ κελεύρζε λεγεις, εὐδὺς Ὅμηρος ἔση. κ. τ. λ.

The instructions delivered to the author before he began his journey were as follow, omitting the less important :

' "The object of the mission which you are to fulfil, is to discover the sources of the Senegal, and of the rivers Gambia and Niger : to ascertain if there really exists a communication between the first two, or at any rate the distance which separates them ; afterwards to determine the distance between the Senegal and the sources of the Niger and the means of traversing it. On reaching the Niger, you will collect every information on the possibility of going down it, to its mouth. But provided you find obstacles to prevent the execution of this project, you will ascend it, and you will in that alone have made an important discovery. To attain your destination, it appears to me prudent to avoid the Fouta country, which you will do by crossing that of the Joloffs, and proceeding southward towards the Mandingo country, where you may safely remain during the rainy season. The character of a merchant which you assume, and the confidence excited by the Marabout whom you have for a guide, give me hopes that you will find in your journey chances of success which a numerous retinue would scarcely afford you, by exciting the avidity or fears of the people you will meet with.'

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The expedition was commenced in company with a native of the Fouta country, a faithful companion, on the 28th of January, 1818; and the author's baggage was light, being principally a few trifling articles of merchandise, and some implements of defence.

It may be a matter of doubt how far these instructions embraced the most useful points for a traveller's investigation: but he is generally responsible only for the execution of his orders, if he acts under any; and with that view we shall refer more especially to those parts of this gentleman's travels, which brought him in contact with the professed objects of his research. M. Mollien, indeed, states that these instructions were partly founded on a plan suggested by himself: but, as we are ignorant whether he alludes to the portion of the directions which we have quoted, or to some others of them in which he is desired more especially to take care of himself, we put this part of the matter altogether out of our view.

The following is the account given of the source of the Gambia:

' April 12th. We had not been able to sleep quietly, for we were in constant alarm. In the morning, after making my guide eat a hearty breakfast to keep him in spirits, we pursued a western direction, taking bye-paths in the lofty mountains called Badet; we at length arrived at the summit of one of these heights; it was entirely bare, so that we could discover below us two thickets, the one concealing from view the sources of the Gambia, (in Poula, Diman,) the other those of the Rio Grande (in Poula, Comba). The joy I felt at this sight could not be disturbed by the reflection of Ali, who the moment we perceived the two rivers said to me, "I fear they will murder thee, if they learn that thou art going to the sources; nevertheless, since thou wilt have it so, we will proceed towards them as if we were hunting, and Boukari on his side shall go to the neighbouring village." The Poulas of Fouta Jallon call this village *the Sources*. Satisfied with this arrangement, I, however, prepared to resist any attack, and loaded my guns. It would be difficult to describe the uneasiness of Ali; he looked behind him every moment; but his anxiety to fulfil his promises made him forget the dangers which threatened us, and the mere idea of which chilled him with horror. Continuing in a western direction we rapidly descended the ferruginous mountain, the summit of which we had been traversing since sunrise, and arrived in a beautiful valley. On the right and left appeared small villages; the ground was covered with high and thick dry grass, not a stone was to be seen on it; two thickets, which shaded the sources, the objects of my research, rose in the midst of this plain, which drought had despoiled of its verdure. When I entered that which covers the source of the Rio Grande, I was seized with a *feeling of awe*, as if I was approaching one of the sacred springs
where

where Paganism placed the residence of its divinities. Trees, coeval with the river, render it invisible to the eyes of those who do not penetrate into this wood; its source gushes from the bosom of the earth, and runs north, north-east, passing over rocks. At the moment when I saw the Rio Grande it slowly rolled along its turbid waters; at about three hundred paces from the source they were clearer, and fit to drink. Ali informed me, that in the rainy season two ravines hollowed in the neighbouring hill, but then dry, and which terminate at the source, conduct thither two torrents which increase its current: at some leagues' distance from the place where it springs from the ground, and beyond the valley, the Rio Grande changes the direction of its course, and runs to the west.

'Proceeding south-south-east in the same meadow, Ali suddenly stamped upon the ground, and the earth echoed in a frightful manner. "Underneath," said he, "are the reservoirs of the two rivers; the noise thou hearest proceeds from their being empty." After walking about thirteen hundred paces, we reached the wood which concealed the source of the Gambia. I forced my way through the thorny bushes which grew between the trees, and obtained a sight of it. This spring, like the other, was not abundant; it issues from beneath a kind of arch in the middle of the wood, and forms two branches; one running south-south-west stops at a little distance, on account of the equality of the ground which does not allow it to go any further, even in the rainy season; the other runs down a gentle declivity, and takes a south-south-east direction. At its exit from the wood, and even six hundred paces farther, it is only three feet broad. After ascertaining so important a point as the relative position of the sources of the Gambia and Rio Grande, at so short a distance from each other, I hastened to rejoin Boukari, who awaited us with an impatience mingled with uneasiness; we rejoiced together at not having met with any unpleasant adventure; in fact, we had only seen a number of oxen roving without herdsmen, in the meadows contiguous to the sources of these two rivers.'

Of the Senegal, we have the annexed description:

'April 26th. Ali had given us his word to conduct us to the sources of the Senegal, but the obligation of keeping his promise threw him into extreme terror; he lost his appetite, and for three days he ate nothing. He fancied every moment that he saw a messenger from Timbo, arriving with orders to apprehend us; his fears were not unreasonable, for I confess I am surprised that the inhabitants of this country suffered a man to escape, whom they might so easily have pillaged with impunity. The safety which I every where enjoyed, proves that the Negroes religiously keep their oaths. Ali, however, notwithstanding his fears, omitted no opportunity of collecting the information necessary to enable us to reach the sources of the Senegal. Agreeably to the instructions we had received from the inhabitants of Dalaba, we proceeded to the north; after traversing a fertile plain watered by the Senegal,

we crossed this river, the shallow current of which flowed over a bed of sand and flints; we then began to climb a very steep mountain. We were still far from the summit when Ali suddenly stopping shewed us on our left, at a little distance from our track, a thicket of tufted trees, which concealed the sources from our view. Boukari and I stole along the mountain, reached this thick wood, into which the rays of the sun had never penetrated, and crossed the Senegal, which could not be so much as four feet broad. Ascending the stream I perceived two basins, one above the other, from which the water gushed forth, and still higher a third, which was only humid, as well as the channel that led to the basin immediately below it. The Negroes consider the upper basin as the principal source of the river. These three springs were situated about the middle of the side of the mountain. In the rainy season two ponds, at equal distances above the upper source, supply it with water by two deep channels. On the opposite side of the mountain is a village called Tonkan.'

Respecting the Niger, M. Mollien in fact made no discoveries: for the oral communications which he received concerning it do not appear to us to possess greater claims to authenticity or accuracy than many others, which have not been much regarded; and, lastly, on this head, the important subject of a communication between the two rivers Gambia and Senegal is dispatched in the ensuing laconic and unsatisfactory manner.

'It has been long supposed that there is a communication between the Gambia and Senegal in the upper part of the country; a communication really exists, but cannot be useful to commerce, since no vessel can navigate the water that runs from one river to another. It would be a very expensive work to construct a canal forming a constant communication between the two rivers by means of this lake, which would furnish water requisite for the purpose.'

It is clear, then, from M. Mollien's travels, if they are correct, (which we discern no sufficient reason to doubt,) that the Gambia and the Senegal have sources not far removed from each other; that these sources have been somewhat misplaced, though not very greatly, by prior geographers; and that it is his opinion, — how founded we know not, — that the rivers themselves have a communication somewhere. This is the main result of the expedition. Undoubtedly, many greater and more indefatigable travellers have succeeded less in realizing the objects with which they departed: but the failures of such men have often been productive of much larger additions to the stock of human knowledge than M. Mollien's success; for the only useful results which we can draw from his discoveries, simply as they regard these rivers, are that

that their sources have in all probability, if not certainly, been seen by a French gentleman, and that hence this gentleman has been able to amend some geographical errors respecting them.

We should be unwilling to have it supposed, however, that the notices respecting the sources of these rivers comprize *all* that can be deemed useful in this writer's researches. In describing the features of different parts of the country traversed, the manners of the different people, some of the articles of produce, and others which are in request, it is impossible that *some* addition should not have been made to our knowlege of this part of Africa; and the observations of any traveller in a new country, even of one who is not endowed with very strong qualifications, (which certainly appears to us to be the case with M. Mollien,) must necessarily afford considerable facilities to those who may subsequently tread the same route. The strictly personal adventures of this author are not without their interest, and occupy a sort of medium-place between those which very strongly excite the feelings, and those which amuse a little but finally weary the reader. It is no fair charge against a foreigner that, in relating his story, he loses sight of that simplicity of narration which delights an Englishman when reading the travels of a countryman of his own. A Frenchman is fond of being sentimental whenever an opportunity can be found, and probably French readers expect as much from their writers.

The general route was from Fort St. Louis in an easterly direction through Cayor, and the kingdom of Bourb-Jolofs; and thence across the Foutatoro country in the same direction, to about 12' west of our meridian. After this, the line changes to due south, through the Foutatoro and Bondou territories, preserving the western boundary of the latter, and descends into a large desert-country formed into a vast peninsula by the windings of the Gambia. Crossing this river, it pursues the same direction until it arrives at the sources of the streams. Hence the traveller turned due west; taking nearly the line of the Rio Grande, but avoiding its sinuosities by pursuing a route somewhat to the north of it; and, after having crossed this river twice, he pursued a course generally north by west to Geba, whence he subsequently descended to Bissao on the Atlantic by water. By the line of the return from the sources, therefore, it will be observed that they must be within three hundred miles of the Atlantic at the point of Bissao; and probably less by a hundred miles, or more, at a point taken *farther to the south* on the western coast of Africa.

Indeed their distance from Sierra Leone cannot, in a direct line, much exceed this latter estimate.

In Cayor the traveller received great attention and kindness from the natives, and he considered them as generally superior in character to any other negroes that he had seen: while the Bomb-Jolloffs, although a little more troublesome from curiosity, carried their compliments still farther by chanting extemporaneous songs in his praise. In this part of his route, he found the religion of Mohammed making considerable progress over the paganism of the negro-race, and thought that it had ameliorated the moral character of the people. Ouamkrore, the capital of this country, was merely a large open village; where the traveller had the honour of having his hair pulled and his nose inclosed by the fingers of his sable majesty; who, it seems, was rather induced to take these liberties from curiosity, and a turn for physiognomical observation, than with the intention of paying a compliment by such condescending familiarity. Gum-trees, mullet, cotton, and indigo, are the most plentiful productions of this district.

M. Mollien crossed the forest which separates Bourby from Foutatoro, with a small caravan, laden chiefly with articles of agricultural merchandise. Moors and wild beasts were the chief objects of apprehension; a circumstance that does not speak much for the humanizing influence of Islamism which the author elsewhere admires.

His first reception in the Fouta territory was not very flattering, but he was rather incommoded than distressed. Boqué was a place of considerable population, and rich in corn and flocks, the neighbouring district being fertile and well cultivated: but this appearance ceased at the village of Galo, whence sandy plains extend to Diaba. Near to the latter place flows a small river which falls into the Senegal, called the Saldé, the banks of which were umbrageous and picturesque. The most constant expressions of surprize were elicited from the natives when they found that M. Mollien could ride, a point on which, we know not why, they were very sceptical; and, when he was inclined to bluster, he was reminded that, although 'he (*i. e.* as a white man) was master on the sea, he was not so upon the land:' a remark with which, as he passes it in silence, we presume that he coincides.

Sedo, the capital of Foutatoro, is said to be situated in a very fine cultivated plain, which account gives us rather indefinite ideas of the degree of cultivation; and indeed vagueness of description is a very besetting sin of this author. *The city is stated to contain six thousand persons, and the*
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Almany or king resides there: but we knew as much of the place before we opened this book as we do since we have read it. — Wives were somewhat dear, the author's horse or gun being the least price demanded for one. Questions rather multiplied as he proceeded; and two aged Imans, instead of inquiring into M. Mollien's religious tenets, asked him "why he wore such tight trowsers?" Hospitality, however, was not wanting, and, indeed, beauty added its grace to conviviality; insomuch that *Monsieur* was a little touched with the tender passion for a lady who washed his clothes; and he observes, 'like the beautiful Nausicaa, the richest women in Africa are not above performing the humblest household duties.' If there be little singularity in this practice, such a remark will not apply to the following:

'A custom not less barbarous than extraordinary prevails in Foutatoro; a slave who wishes to change his master seeks by surprise or force to cut off the ear of the man whom he fancies; if he succeeds he immediately becomes the property of that person; and his old master cannot claim him again. To this practice my fellow-traveller owed his deafness; two slaves had successively cut off each an ear, close to the head, and the wound in healing had entirely closed the auditory channel. This man was certainly very unfortunate from his reputation for kindness, which gained him the good opinion of the slaves: he must now be careful of his horses, for as he has no ears himself, it will be these animals whose ears the fugitive slaves will next attack.'

It does not, however, appear doubtful, notwithstanding the general admiration which the author excited, that he returned from his travels with both his ears; and possibly he still preserves them.

On quitting the Foutatoro territory, M. Mollien speaks much of his escape from the dangers which threatened him there, though, after all, they do not seem to have been very appalling; and he breathed more freely, he says, on entering Bondou. The first persons whom he met were some 'jet-black Naiads, whom it would have required the virtue of a stoic to behold with indifference;' and the next seems to have been the King's son, who, though M. Mollien's clothes were at this time hanging in shreds, would not allow him to saddle his own horse: civilly observing, "Let slaves do that: it does not become a prince like thee to work." We hope that the interpreter was as faithful at this part of his vocation as he was in all others.

When he entered Bondou, the traveller discarded his 'tight trowsers,' and assumed an Arab or a Negro dress; in which, according to his own account, he looked extremely well.

well. Admiration consequently pursued his steps; and, although he drunk red and yellow water, and could not sleep for the noise of hyænas, he was clearly in very good humour with himself and all around him. The subsequent anecdote nevertheless implies that African *politesse* does not restrict the indulgence of curiosity:

‘ A very general custom in Africa, and what many people would doubtless wish to see introduced in France, is to shut your eyes to rid yourself of troublesome people. Whenever they think that any one near them is asleep all retire; it is the only method by which a stranger can obtain some repose. To be sure, with me this artifice was not always successful. At Boqui, for example, the east wind was so scorching, and the consuming heat which circulated in the atmosphere was at the same time so oppressive, that my senses were soon lulled into a profound sleep. This was the moment chosen by the women of the village to come and examine me; before this they had not ventured to approach me; the slightest motion that I made had put them to flight. What was my surprise, on awaking, to find myself in the hands of a troop of Negresses, who were employed in an inquisitive examination of my person. When I opened my eyes, they shrieked with flight, and spread consternation through the whole village.’

Bondou is described as little else than a vast forest, with small villages, wretchedly built; and the greater part of the soil is covered with ferruginous stones. Water, however, is both secure and plentiful, as far as we comprehend M. Mollien; for in this respect he seems to contradict himself. The western side of the country contains iron mines; the eastern, gold. Tobacco is cultivated, and a kind of snuff is manufactured which the author highly approved: horses and asses were very rare, and the stock of horned cattle was but scanty. Mohammedanism seems very general. With regard to Bambouk, as M. Mollien never visited it, it is superfluous to notice his remarks.

The expedition to Fouta Jallon was performed in company with a caravan through a forest of vast extent, abounding with elephants, as the author states on apparently inconclusive testimony; for, though he both heard them and saw their traces, he does not seem ever to have met with the animal itself. From the top of the Badon mountains, the Gambia was visible, to which the caravan descended. The stream was only knee-deep, about the width of the Seine at the *Pont des Arts* at Paris, the “current limpid,” the shores rocky, and the bottom composed of sharp flint. It is somewhat extraordinary that a river thus circumstanced should have ‘produced a noise like the sea, when dashing against the shore.’—The inhabitants of the Fouta Jallon seem to be
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greater extortioners than their northern neighbours, the plunder there being the privilege only of the great; the villages resemble camps; the inhabitants possess but few cattle, and those are small; sheep are rarely found; and neither asses nor horses are to be seen. Silver is said to be in this country almost as valuable as gold, and 'a traveller provided with small coin would be sure not to want for any thing, since silver is every where in request.' The sources of the Gambia have been already described in an extract, together with those of the Rio Grande. Many traces of an extinct volcano are discoverable in the vicinity of them; and, as an account of those of the Senegal has been also transferred to our pages, we take leave of the traveller at the point at which he turned westward towards the Atlantic.

Our long report of these travels requires no peroration. We can say nothing in favour of the plates, and there seems to be even some reason for supposing that the drawings whence they were taken are exclusively of home-manufacture. No notice of the original artist, or indeed of the engraver, is attached to them; and many of them relate subjects which might be designed with equal fidelity in St. Paul's Church-yard or the *Rue St. Honoré* as at Canel, Timbo, or Bissao. — The author's parting from his friends, the author in sickness in a Foota hovel, the author's salutation of friends "*per varios casus, per tot discrimina rerum,*" on his return, are matters of all times and countries. Of the two or three which profess to illustrate the descriptions of local scenery, we can say nothing more than that the lines of the landscape do no violence to the usual forms assumed by nature.

ART. VII. *Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the depressed State of the Agriculture of the United Kingdom.* 8vo. 2s. Sherwood and Co. 1821.

IN the course of our long career as observers of passing events both in the literary and the political world, we do not remember a parliamentary document more eagerly expected or more actively circulated than this Report of the Agricultural Committee. The Bullion-Report came on the public unexpectedly; and its interest, arising at first from an opposition between the views of the committee and those of ministers, became great only after its circulation had extended, and when the fall in our exchanges had contributed to increase the general attention. In the present case, on the other hand, the interest was great from the beginning; and

from the moment when there was reason to expect the printing of the Report, other subjects were postponed, and the eyes of a great part of the community were fixed exclusively on the labours of the Committee. How far, it may be asked, has this anxiously expected production answered the prevailing expectation? On the score of impartiality of discussion and liberality of view, we do not apprehend that any disappointment can have ensued; and the Report has a fair title to be considered as the precursor of a more judicious code of corn-laws, or at least as the most elaborate attempt that has yet been made to awaken the landed interest to a sense of the fallacy of the present system. As to the merit, however, of the composition of this document, it is by no means equal to that of the matter. We do not allude to a deficiency of those graces of style which custom does not require in a parliamentary paper, and which would probably be misplaced there, but to a want of that brevity and arrangement which in any composition are indispensable to a distinct conception of the language of business. The Report begins without any sketch or outline of its objects, and terminates with a very limited summary of its conclusions. He who aims at understanding it thoroughly, or at viewing it in its *ensemble*, must go over the whole, not as a reader but as an analyzer; forming an arrangement for himself, frequently altering the succession of the arguments, and collecting them under a few general heads. This trouble we have considered it as incumbent on us to spare our readers; and, before we enter on any disquisition into the merits of the Report, or attempt to supply those points which have been either omitted or too briefly treated by the Committee, we shall endeavour to convey an outline of their subject and labours.

The mission of the Committee was, to express ourselves in official language, "to consider the various petitions complaining of the depressed state of our agriculture, to inquire into the allegations of the petitioners, and to report their observations thereupon." In pursuance of this authority, they examined a number of witnesses, and composed the Report partly from the evidence, but, in a far greater proportion, from their own views and conclusions on the corn-trade considered as a general question. The whole may be said to embrace the following topics.

Admission of the Distress of the Agriculturists; Attempt to ascertain its Course, and to define its Extent; Reference to former Periods of Distress.

Principles of our Corn-Trade; Historical Retrospect; its prosperous State from 1773 to 1814, a Period comparatively exempt

empt from legislative Interference ; various Disadvantages of our present Corn-Law ; Modifications suggested, particularly a moderate fixed Duty on Foreign Corn.

Examination of the Petitions of the Agriculturists with regard to Taxes ; the high Duty (40s. per quarter) which they propose on Foreign Wheat ; and, lastly, their Objections to the unlimited Warehousing of Foreign Corn ; Conclusion.

After this summary, we proceed to an

Abstract of the Agricultural Report.

Admission of the Distress of the Agriculturists.—The complaints of the farmers and others in the numerous petitions referred to the Committee appear but too well grounded, as far as they represent the present price of corn to be by no means adequate to the charge of raising it, and the consequent necessity for the tenant to pay from his capital a considerable proportion of his outgoings. This is shewn by the testimony of many respectable witnesses, as well occupiers of land as surveyors and land-agents ; and the conclusion is that the return of farming capital, which, during a considerable part of the war, somewhat exceeded the ordinary rate of profit, is now materially below it.

Though the pressure thus caused on the farmer has materially affected the retail business of shopkeepers in country-towns, it appears by official returns that the consumption, in the kingdom at large, of the principal articles subject to excise and customs increased in 1820, when compared with the average of the three preceding years ; as also that the quantity made of our chief manufacture has on the whole received an increase. Rents, likewise, have as yet been paid without much arrear, except in particular districts ; a punctuality which seems to afford a ground for hoping that the tenantry possess resources which will enable them to surmount their difficulties, especially as landlords have been induced to lower their rents in many instances, not only on new leases but on subsisting contracts.

Examples of similar Embarrassment.—However much this pressure is to be lamented, revulsions of the same nature, if not to the same degree, have occurred in different periods of our history, particularly in the years 1804 and 1814. The discussions in the latter years cannot be called to recollection without our being forcibly struck with the conformity of the statements and opinions then given on the ruinous operation of low prices, with those in the evidence annexed to this Report : yet in this, as well as in several preceding instances recorded between the middle of the 17th and that of the 18th century, the fears of those who reasoned on their continuance
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and increase were successively dissipated by the natural course of seasons and events.

This reference to past experience ought to operate in allaying alarm, and should lead to a conclusion on the part of the occupiers of the soil, as it has done on the part of the Committee, that in agriculture, and in all pursuits in which capital and industry are embarked, there have been and will be periods of re-action : a re-action proportioned to the previous prosperity of the pursuit, and the degree of personal exertion and investment of capital prompted by that prosperity. In the distribution of capital and labour, a natural tendency exists to remedy the disorders arising from such temporary derangement, and any interference on the part of the legislature has often operated to prolong them.

Cause of the Rise of Prices in War, and of their subsequent Depression.—The increase of rent during the late wars was owing to two main causes, —the diminished value of our currency, and the extensive investment of capital in land, as well for the improvement of what was already under tillage, as to bring into cultivation great tracts of land formerly waste of comparatively of little value. The proportion of increase to be ascribed to either cause cannot be defined with accuracy. The restoration of the currency naturally tends to lower rent as far as it had been raised by the depreciation of our paper, but the *quantum* of such reduction cannot be determined at the present moment ; because our currency, after having so long been below, now appears to be above its standard. The coffers of the Bank have been replenished in the course of the last and the present year, and in a great measure by withdrawing coin from circulation on the continent of Europe, while the separate currency of this kingdom has at the same time undergone a contraction. The present price of silver in bank-paper, and the high course of our foreign exchanges, concur strongly to warrant this conclusion. Without pursuing this inquiry farther, the Committee cannot but ascribe a part of the depression of prices to the measures taken for a return to metallic currency in this as well as in other countries ; and they incline, therefore, to the belief that the ultimate effect on rent of a resumption of cash-payments will fall far short of some of the predictions suggested by the present alarm. The diminution of rent from this cause cannot, they think, in the end exceed that part of the increase which, during the war, grew out of depreciation ; and, if circumstances are favourable, it may not perhaps go so far.

A fall of money-price has of late years taken place in several countries, and in a great variety of articles : it applies to

to the corn, the cotton, the rice, and the tobacco of the United States; to the sugar and rum of the West Indies; to the tallow, flax, timber, iron, wool, and corn of the continent of Europe. In all these articles, the proportion of fall has been equal, in some cases more than equal, to the fall in the price of corn in England; although, in commodities so different from corn, the same causes cannot be considered as operating. So general a depression of money-price can be explained only by the derangement produced by the convulsions of the last thirty years; a derangement pervading all the relations of commerce in the application of capital and the demand for labour; and which will not cease until the habits and dealings of individuals, as well as the intercourse of nations, shall have adjusted themselves to that state of things which is likely to become again the permanent condition of society.

The present depression of the corn-market is, in the opinion of the Committee, the result not of the large importations of corn in 1817 and 1818, but of an abundant growth at home. The harvest of 1819 was in England an average-crop, and in Ireland somewhat more, while that of 1820 appears to have exceeded an average in both countries. The supply of wheat has, doubtless, been much extended in the present age, particularly in Ireland, since the act of 1806 so judiciously permitted a free import of corn of every description from that country to Great Britain. The import from Ireland in the thirty-two years between 1773 and 1806 was only 7,534,000 quarters: but in the fifteen years from 1806 to 1821 it was 12,304,000 quarters.

Historical View of our Corn-Laws.—On taking this retrospect, we discover traces of the interference of government from a very early age. We find in the 16th century, before the introduction of our poor-laws, statutes prohibiting the conversion of arable into pasture land, and restricting the number of sheep and live-stock. These statutes were apparently suggested by a solicitude to find employment for the lower orders, and to relieve their misery by increased tillage. In the 17th century we perceive a similar interference in a less harsh form; and the æra of the Revolution is well known as the commencement of a system for the direct increase of growth by the grant of a bounty on export. This effect it certainly produced; for between 1697 and 1773 the amount of corn exported above our imports was 30,968,000 quarters; and the amount of bounty paid out of the public revenue was 6,237,000*l*.

The necessity of import experienced in the early part of the reign of George III. led to a new view of the corn-trade,
to

to the limitation of the bounty on export, and to the admission of foreign corn at a small duty, whenever our own exceeded a specified price. In the competition thus permitted between the British and the foreign grower, what advantage was given to the former? During the twenty years from 1773 to 1793, the British grower had scarcely any protection above the foreigner except the charge of freight, and a duty never heavy and frequently little more than nominal. From 1793 to 1814, that protection received an increase: but the virtual encouragement, that which had a real and extensive operation, was the high rate of charge incident to imports in the late war, particularly in the latter years of it. The corn-law was in general inoperative: yet no period was more marked with improvements in agriculture, and none offered more substantial reasons for submitting to parliament the expediency of a trade in corn always open to other nations; without any burden except that of such a fixed duty as might compensate to the British grower the indirect encouragement given to him during the war by the high freight and other charges on import. Compare the period of 1713—1756 with that of 1773—1814, recollecting that the former was a term chiefly of peace, and the latter chiefly of war; that during the former the market-interest of money was generally below, and during the latter frequently above the rate fixed by law; and farther that in the one the legislature granted a bounty on the export of corn, while during the other agriculture had no such stimulant. It will then be found that in the earlier period our agriculture was comparatively stagnant, but in the latter in a state of rapid extension and improvement. Ought it not to be inferred that there was nothing in the bounty-system that necessarily promoted agriculture, — nothing in the comparative abstinence from interference that was incompatible with its prosperity? If, before 1773, the quantity of wheat raised in Great Britain was only 4,000,000 of quarters, and if at present it is more than double; if since that time the number of cattle and sheep has been vastly augmented, and their breeds improved; if scientific drainages have been effected, and extensive wastes inclosed; it can surely not be said that there has been a want of encouragement to invest a capital in agriculture. The farther improvements made within the same period, the canals, the roads, the bridges, the harbours, and the docks, that have been either formed or improved, not by the public revenue but by the capital of individuals: the unexampled extension of manufactures and trade; the augmentation of internal wealth, which defies all comparison with any former portion of our history or of the history of any other state; — all this makes the

the Committee entertain a doubt whether the only solid foundation of agricultural prosperity is not laid in abstaining as much as possible from interfering, either by protection or prohibition, with the supply of capital in any branch of industry. Can commerce expand, manufactures thrive, and great public works be undertaken, without affording increased means of paying for the production of the land? Must not the principal part of those productions, which contribute to the gratification of the wants and desires of the community at large, be drawn from our own soil, — the demand increasing with the population, the population with the wealth of the state; — and does not a great part of the capital employed in supporting our manufactures, trade, and public works, pass, by a very rapid course, into the hands of the occupier of the soil? Has not agriculture languished formerly in our own country, and at present in other naturally fertile regions, from the want of such a stimulus; — and in these countries are not the proprietors of land poor, and the people wretched, in proportion as the labour of the population is exclusively confined to the cultivation of the soil?

It will be for parliament to appreciate this view of the subject, and in its measures to reconcile it with the considerations of state-policy which forbid, on the one hand, that we should render ourselves too dependent for subsistence on foreign supply; or on the other that we should create by artificial means too great a difference between the cost of subsistence in this and in other countries: — a difference which might have the effect of driving capital abroad, and of leaving our unpaid population to be maintained by the landed interest with diminished resources.

Disadvantages of the Corn-Law of 1815. — The principle of this law is to exclude foreign corn in seasons of abundance, and to give every facility to its introduction in years of scarcity. Adapted as it appears to such a purpose, its practical operation will often be found at variance with its object; aggravating at one time the evils of scarcity, and at another increasing the depression of price arising from abundance. Its enforcement prompts the grower to extension of home-cultivation by the hope of a monopoly-price; while its occasional interruption may deprive him of it when most wanted. To the consumer it holds out the prospect of a trade occasionally free, but so irregular as to baffle calculation, and to involve the dealer in more than the ordinary risks of mercantile speculation. At one time it exposes our market to be occasionally over-loaded with foreign corn: at another, in the event of a considerable deficiency in our own harvest, it creates a competition

petition on the Continent, by the effect of which prices are rapidly raised against us.

If on the expiration of the summer-quarter, (15th August,) our average price of wheat were 79s. 11d., our ports, under the present law, would remain shut till 15th November: but if that average were 80s. 1d., whatever were the prospect of an abundant harvest, the import would be open during six weeks or three months. In the former case, the prices might rise very high before we received any considerable supply; in the latter, a rapid import might reduce them to a level to which they would otherwise not sink. This was strikingly exemplified with regard to the import of oats in the last autumn, when, on the opening of our ports, a rise of from 30 to 50 per cent. occurred in several continental markets, the shortness of the time allowed for import causing the shipments to be made in great haste. In England, prices fell, but not in time to stop these imprudent adventurers; and a great loss was sustained both by the continental shipper and by the British farmer. Yet the amount of this import, about 727,000 quarters, was not a thirtieth of the annual consumption of oats in Great Britain.

The degree of fluctuation in our market under the act of 1815 has been great almost beyond example. Between January, 1816, and June, 1817, the price of wheat varied from 53s. to 112s.; while in the three months which ensued from June to September, 1817, it varied farther from 112s. to 74s. How far has this system in its favour the sanction of long usage? Its present form dates only from 1815, previously to which our corn-law knew, on the one hand, no absolute prohibition; on the other, no import without the payment of some duty, great or small. The provisions of the act of 1804 were that, when the average-price of our wheat should be between 63s. and 66s., foreign wheat might be imported on a duty of 2s. 6d. per quarter; and, when our currency rose to 66s. or upwards, that duty was reduced to 6d. per quarter. When our average was under 63s., the import was subject not to absolute prohibition, but to the high duty of 24s. 3d.; which, however, generally operated as a prohibition.

What are, on a series of years, the comparative chances of deficient crops in this country and on the Continent? They are probably greater in this country, since, from our less extensive territory and less varied climate, the effect of unfavourable weather in one district is not likely to be balanced by an opposite effect in another. The climate of Ireland being more variable than that of England, the hazard of deficiency would

would be augmented if our dependence on Ireland increased. A similar result would probably follow by extending the cultivation of our poorer soils, which are more likely to be affected by ungenial seasons.

No article experiences so great a change of price as corn, in proportion to any excess or deficiency in the supply. Mr. Tooke, a witness particularly examined on this point, explained this fact as follows: A fall in the price of any commodity, not of general necessity, brings the article within the reach of the consumption of a great number of individuals; whereas, in the case of corn, the average-quantity being sufficient for the supply of every individual, all beyond such average-quantity operates to depress the market. The consumption of corn is, doubtless, greater when it is cheap than when it is dear, but in a small proportion to the surplus arising from one or two abundant seasons; understanding by an abundant season not one in which a deficiency of one kind of corn is made good by the surplus of another, but in which the leading articles of consumption are simultaneously abundant. Our growth is probably equal on an average to our consumption; and, as long as the British grower retains the exclusive supply, the fluctuation of our prices must range between 80s. as a *maximum*, and as a *minimum* the lowest price to which one or more abundant harvests may bring our corn, until it finds a vent in exportation, or is raised at home by the occurrence of an unfavourable season.

Reasoning from the past, what prospect appears of a rise of prices from the recurrence of an unfavourable season? Dr. Smith, and Mr. Burke in his "Thoughts and Details on Scarcity," agree in opinion, founded apparently on long observation, that favourable or unfavourable seasons occur not at short intervals, but at rather long cycles, and irregularly. If that opinion be well founded, the Committee need not add how hazardous must be the situation of the grower of corn, in a country in which the lowest price accounted necessary to afford him a remuneration considerably exceeds the prices of the rest of the world.

The estimate of a remunerating price appears to be subject to much misconception, for that which was deemed such in 1815 may be more or less than a remuneration in 1821, under a very different state of things. On the one hand, the sum of 80s. may now represent a considerably greater value; while, on the other, if the necessity of increased supply requires a resort to inferior land, it may have become eligible to plough up tracts which in 1815 would not have paid for cultivating. If the necessity of indemnifying the cultivator of the
inferior

inferior soils should lead to our raising the import-limit above 80s. per quarter, an undue profit would accrue to the owner or occupier of the superior soils whose charges would not have been increased. It would thus appear necessary to advance, from time to time, our import-limit, though the charges of raising corn on good soils should remain the same; and if in other countries prices did not undergo a corresponding rise, the result of every such advance must be to expose us to greater and more grievous fluctuations.

The scarcities of the present age have furnished us in some degree with a knowledge of the amount of aid that can be afforded by the surplus-produce of the Continent. Any rise in our present import-limit would discourage the extension of that supply: — it would tend to aggravate the fluctuation, and other inconveniences, which appear connected with the principle of alternate monopoly and free import.

How far can these Disadvantages be remedied? — Our past experience is decidedly in favour of a repeal of our present law, and of laying open our trade in corn with all nations; subject only to such a duty as might compensate to the British grower the loss of the encouragement arising from the high freight and other import-charges during the last war. Such duty ought to be calculated on the difference of expence between this country and those from which our principal supplies have usually been drawn, taking into account the freight and other import-charges. The Committee are, however, fully aware of the unfitness of such a change at this moment, when a great accumulation has taken place in our warehouses as well as in the shipping-ports of the Continent. The present price is too low to represent the cost of corn, even to the foreign grower: it is the result of a general glut, and of an extreme distress on the part of those by whom it has been raised, or by whom it is held.

Is it not practicable, however, to modify the operation of our corn-law, so as to prevent, on the opening of our ports, the introduction of foreign corn in a sudden and irregular manner? This, in the opinion of the Committee, might be attained by imposing a fixed duty on the import of foreign corn; accompanying, however, this duty with a reduction of the present limit, that the price might not be raised beyond what it might reach under the existing law: an effect which the Committee are very desirous of avoiding. When corn shall have reached some given high price, the duty should cease altogether.

What, it may be asked, ought to be the new import-limit; which corn might be admitted, subject to duty? This the Committee

Committee do not profess to determine: but it evidently ought to be such as not to place the occupier of our inferior soils in a worse situation than at present. Without inquiring how far the cultivation of these inferior lands may have been expedient, the Committee can have no difficulty in stating that capital already vested should be protected against revulsion: but farther the protection ought not to go; since the growth of our population and the accumulation of our internal wealth would continue to give, as they have given during the last sixty years, the most effectual encouragement to agriculture. Nothing is to be dreaded, as long as our institutions afford security to capital and industry;—as long as capital and good faith keep pace with that security, and as we avoid any course which might drive capital to seek a more profitable employment in foreign states.

The principles of the freedom of trade are now almost universally acknowledged to be politic as well as liberal: but, while it is the duty of parliament to revert to these principles as far as they are practicable, in the corn-trade as in other branches, it is also incumbent on it to spare vested interests, and to deal tenderly even with obstacles to improvement when created by the long existence of an artificial system. In all their suggestions, the Committee are desirous to secure the country from a dependence on other states for subsistence; and still more to preserve to the landed interest the weight and ascendancy which it has enjoyed so long, and used so beneficially.

Effect of Taxation on Agriculture.—A comparison of the amount of our taxation with that of other countries, as they stood in 1792 and as they now stand, might, if confined to an arithmetical statement, lead to an unfair estimate of the increase that has taken place in the interval. Considering public burdens with reference to population, England is the most taxed portion of Europe, excepting perhaps Holland: but, measuring them by the aggregate of national capital, or of national income, the proportion of the taxes to the income or capital of each individual is perhaps smaller in England than in several states of the Continent, or even in Ireland. Such proportion, also, is not perhaps materially greater now than at former periods, when our national capital, our population, and our public revenue, were all far below their present amount. However this may be, it is not less the duty of government to aid individual accumulation by diminishing our expenditure, since the weight of taxation must be more severely felt in proportion as the money-income derived from agriculture, trade, and manufactures, shall undergo a diminution. This has been the case of late years: the pres-

sure of taxation has been increased in proportion to the rise of our currency; and no exertion should be spared to reduce that pressure, as nearly as possible, in the degree in which it has been augmented.

All taxes tend, in the opinion of the Committee, to abridge the resources and comforts of those by whom they are ultimately paid: but no grounds seem to exist for believing that the profits of farming are more affected by taxation than those of trade or manufacture. Were such the case, it must obviously be temporary, since capital would be changed from one mode of employment to another, until the proper level were restored. In some of the petitions referred to the Committee, the parties have gone so far as to allege that, to remunerate the grower, the price of corn ought to increase in the same ratio as the public revenue. Without denying that the cost of raising corn may be in some degree affected by an addition to our taxes, and that any increase of the charges more particularly paid by the farmer, (such as tithe and poor-rate,) must tend more directly to augment that expence, it is obvious that the price of corn in every country is regulated by the cost of tillage on inferior soils. Thus no direct connection subsists between the expenditure of the farmer and the amount of taxation. The latter might be increased and the price of corn might fall in a country, if the quantity required could be raised on the same soils at a reduced expence, in consequence of improvements in husbandry. In the three wars of the last century, begun respectively in 1740, 1756, and 1775, no rise appears to have taken place in corn: in the last, prices were even somewhat lower than in the preceding peace; though there never was a period when the burden of taxation seemed to press more heavily on our resources, or gave greater reason to apprehend that a part of that burden was paid not from our income but from our capital. During the late wars, on the contrary, great as was the increase of our taxation, the number of extensive undertakings begun and completed by individuals afford a proof that the increase of the capital of the country must have been progressive and considerable.

Proposed Duty of 40s. on Foreign Wheat. — A fixed duty to so great an amount as 40s. could be considered in no other light than as a prohibition; for, during the enforcement in former years of the duty of 24s. 3d., no importation took place to any extent. Heavy duties on the smaller articles of agricultural produce are all open to the same objection: they would go far towards the total annihilation of commercial intercourse, and would probably never have been
proposed

proposed to parliament, had not a very exaggerated notion existed of what is deemed protection to our manufactures. One witness, to illustrate his argument, furnished a table of the high custom-duties payable on foreign manufactures; without adding that, in most of these, (for instance, in the article of glass,) the custom-duty is intended to countervail the excise-duty paid on British manufactures of the same kind. In fact, it may well be doubted whether any of our principal manufactures, except silk, derive benefit from the enactments in the statute-book: — if we can afford to undersell foreign manufactures of cotton, hardware, and even of woollen, in foreign markets, how could they successfully compete with us in our own?

Warehousing of Foreign Corn. — Several of the petitioners have called for a repeal of that clause in the act of 1815, which allows foreign corn to be lodged in our warehouses at any time, whether it can then be taken out for home-consumption or not. In support of their plea, they urge two arguments; first that foreign corn thus absorbs capital which would otherwise be employed in purchasing corn of British growth; and, secondly, that the notoriety of a quantity of foreign wheat being deposited in our warehouses tends to keep the market in a depressed state, from a dread of its being poured in for sale as soon as prices rise above 80s. Of these arguments, the former is evidently erroneous; since no fixed amount of capital is appropriated to the trade in foreign corn, nor does the value of all the foreign corn at present in this country exceed 1,000,000*l.* sterling. As to the second objection, it is unquestionably true that the present accumulation of foreign corn would have a considerable influence over prices here, on its being admitted to sale in the event of a deficient harvest: but would not that influence be nearly or altogether the same, if the accumulation took place in the ports of Holland, Flanders, or other parts of the Continent, several of which are as convenient as our own for access to the Thames. Besides, the warehousing of foreign corn in England gives us some degree of independence in the supply of our wants; lessening, in a season of scarcity, the power of foreign states to impose a duty or a prohibition on exports to this country: a measure by no means unlikely, since a large demand from England creates an increase of price, frequently injurious and always unpopular, in the country from which it is supplied. During the memorable scarcity of 1800 and 1801, the Prussian government imposed a tax of 10s. per quarter on corn exported; declaring expressly that its con-

tinuance or removal would depend on the continuance or cessation of our wants.

Conclusion.—It would have been highly satisfactory to the Committee to terminate their labours by pointing out some immediate measure of alleviation; and, could such an expedient have been suggested, they would not have been restrained from adopting it though it formed a temporary departure from sound principles of general policy. When, however, after an anxious inquiry, they are unable to discover any means of immediate relief, they know too well their duty to the House, and respect too much the manly character of the agriculturists, either to disguise their view of the origin of their difficulties, or to recommend any mode of relief pointed out by the suffering parties, if it be founded, in the opinion of the Committee, in delusion. As far as the present low prices are the result of abundance of home-growth, no legislative provision can raise the market: as far as they proceed from the increased value of money, they are not peculiar to the farmer, but common to him with many other classes. In his case, however, the effect of the latter cause has been aggravated by its coincidence with an over-stock of supply; and by the comparative slowness with which charges, particularly the rate of labour, accommodate themselves to a change in the value of money. A rise in such value bears hard on a tenant farming with a borrowed capital, and under the engagements of a lease; as also on the land-owner whose estate is incumbered with mortgages, or other fixed payments. Relief, the Committee hope, will ere long be found in a partial reduction of the rate of interest of money, now that public loans have ceased; that accumulations of capital in the hands of individuals are probable; and that the sinking fund bids fair to have a steady operation on our public debt. Such an alleviation has been produced in former intervals of peace; and if at present the want of it has become more urgent, the salutary result will, it is to be hoped, be more speedily effected. The Committee look to it with the more anxiety, because, amid all the injury and injustice which an unsettled currency (an evil, they trust, never again to be incurred) has in succession cast on the different ranks of society, the share of that evil which has now fallen on the landed interest admits of no other relief. Our difficulties, great as they unfortunately are, must diminish in proportion as contracts, prices, and labour, adjust themselves to the present value of money: a change which is now in progress; and which, the Committee are satisfied, will continue until the restoration of that balance which shall afford to labour its due remuneration, and to capital its fair return.

Such

Such is the Report of the Agricultural Committee; in our abstract of which, if we have found it occasionally necessary to transpose the arrangement of the arguments, we have made it a rule to adhere strictly to the sense, and, as much as we could, to the words of the original. The principal inferences from it are that our agriculture has been prosperous in proportion as government has abstained from interfering with it: that the bounty-system, whatever might be its early operation, had the effect of keeping agriculture in a torpid state for the half century previous to 1773: that the high import-limit established since 1815 is likely to lead to excess of home-growth; and that the prosperity of our agriculture is to be sought in that comparative exemption from interference which prevailed from 1773 to 1814. The advice of the Committee is to return, by cautious steps, to this unrestricted state of intercourse; reducing our import-limit; and substituting a duty of such an amount as may afford protection to the present cultivators of our inferior soils, but holding out no encouragement for the farther appropriation of these ungrateful occupancies. After this return to sound principle, the Committee hope that our increasing population, and the general improvement of circumstances attendant on confirmed peace, will relieve the distress of our agriculturists: but they anticipate no permanent aid from such measures as the imposition of the proposed high duty (40s. per quarter) on foreign wheat, or from a restriction on the warehousing of foreign corn in our sea-ports. The former would lead to an excess of home-growth; and the latter would merely transfer the deposits of the corn-merchants from our warehouses to those of Holland, Flanders, and other parts of the Continent which are convenient for shipping it to London.

To the general spirit of the doctrines of the Report we subscribe, in common with all who acknowledge the principles of free trade, and who lament that our legislature has deviated from them so materially in the case of our corn-laws. The manner of expressing an opinion is a consideration of great nicety in an official report; in which, far different from the unauthorized publication of an individual, confidence of tone may lead to serious results. In the present case, it was of great importance to avoid all assertions which might be construed into interference between landlord and tenant; into a discouragement of the continuance of tillage at its present extent; or, finally, into a protection of the consumer at the expence of the agriculturist. Against all this the Committee have carefully guarded; enjoining nothing with respect to a point so delicate as the adjustment of wages or rent to the reduced price of corn,

but leaving the change to the natural course of circumstances. In like manner, with regard to our import-limit for foreign corn, while a modification of its amount and the introduction of a fixed duty are suggested, we meet with no confident calculation or authoritative prescription as to the rate of either. In short, the Report bids fair to awaken the landed interest to the folly of the present system; and to the injurious tendency of those interferences, to which, formerly in the shape of bounty, and lately in that of discouragement to import, they have clung;—less, we believe, from selfish calculation than from a credulous acceptance of the professions of ministers; who, in a former as in the present age, perfectly knew how to gild the pill of taxation, and to persuade both agriculturist and manufacturer to submit to a sacrifice by holding forth an ostensible equivalent.

If, on the whole, however, we think thus favourably of the Report of the Agricultural Committee, we are by no means blind to its defects;—to the omission of several topics, and to the imperfect illustration of others. On these it now becomes our duty to enlarge; and we shall begin with one which under present circumstances is of great importance; viz. the influence of the actual price of corn on the cost of raising it: in other words, the tendency of the latter to decrease in consequence of the fall of the former. This will soon be apparent from the following table, which is extracted from the publications of the Board of Agriculture, and was given at greater length in our Number for May, 1815, p. 78.

Expence of cultivating 100 Acres of Arable Land in England; on an Average of the Returns made to Circular Letters from the Board of Agriculture to Farmers in different Parts of the Kingdom.

Rent,	-	£121	2	7	Brought up,	£436	19	2	
Tithe,	-	26	8	0	Teams,	-	80	8	0
Rates,	-	31	7	8	Interest of capital				
Wear and tear,		22	11	10	required to cul-				
Labour,	-	118	0	4	tivate the 100				
Seed,	-	49	2	7	acres,	-	30	3	10
Manure,	-	68	6	2					
					In all,	£547	11	0	
Carry up,		£436	19	2					

This return, made for the year 1803, we believe to be not far different from the charges of farming at present, or such as they are likely soon to become. In 1790, the charge of cultivating 100 acres of arable land appeared, from similar returns, to be only 412l.: but in 1813, the year which, and its predecessor, were seasons of exence par excellence, the highest

highest that the present generation has seen or may perhaps ever see, the amount of similar charges was not much short of 800*l*.

A statement in this explicit form leads to conclusions of great importance; presenting the constituent parts of the price of corn; and enabling us, when we examine it in conjunction with the political events of the age, to account for the fluctuations in the rate of agricultural charges, extraordinary as have been their rise in war and their decline in peace. Of the incidents specified above, the first to feel the effect of war are the price of labour, the interest of money, and the direct taxes: an enhancement of these is soon followed by an enhancement in the items of team and manure: an increase in the price of seed is necessarily identified with a rise in corn: an increase of tithe, as expressed in money, is a consequence almost equally direct; while an advance of poor-rate has, ever since the days of Queen Elizabeth, followed, at no distant date, an augmented price of bread. The return of peace, and the cessation of the demand of government for men and money, produce a series of consequences directly opposite. Additional capital and additional labour are appropriated to agriculture: wages, interest of money, and, in some degree, direct taxes, undergo a reduction; and a fall in the cost of seed, of teams, of manure, of tithe, and, finally, of poor-rate, is the consequence of this great re-action. How far do these facts appear to have been within the knowledge of the Committee? The Report is composed under a conviction of the general truth of what we have stated: but it is deficient in a clear and pointed statement of facts and circumstances; nowhere explaining the immediate connection between the price of corn and the cost of raising it; and falling, with regard to the rise in the value of money, into the error that has pervaded so many of the speeches of the last session, — we mean, ascribing to the resumption of cash-payments that change which rested on a broader basis, — that of transition from war to peace; in proof of which we have only to notice the considerable rise that took place in 1815 and 1816, before a return to cash-payments was enjoined by act of parliament.

Effect of a Bounty on the Export of Corn. — The Committee have expatiated with considerable emphasis on the torpid state of agriculture, during the period when a bounty was paid on our corn-exports, or rather during the sixty years between 1713 and 1773. They might, we think, have bestowed a few sentences on what appears to us a very plain proposition, and one which, if given from such authority, would have carried conviction to their readers; viz. that the bounty, after having caused at

first a briskness of demand, produced an undue extension of growth, proving to the landed interest a source of general and long continued loss. Were it practicable to have reference to the records of rent in the years subsequent to 1689, we should probably find that the certainty of a given price, afforded by the bounty-act, operated, like a similar certainty from a different cause in 1804, to produce a temporary rise of rent; and the probability, whether we form an estimate from our annual returns of the prices of corn between 1692 and 1717, or from the natural result of a state of war, is that the injurious effect of bounty on home-price was not felt until several years after the peace of Utrecht. From that time, however, to 1764, the agriculture of our country evidently laboured under the disadvantage of excess of growth; — an excess which was demonstrated partly by our low prices, but more by the large amount of our exports. The bounty thus proved beneficial to land-holders only in its early stage; and the real prosperity of our agriculture dates from the period (1764) when the course of circumstances led to the cessation of the bounty: or in other words caused it to expire by a natural death. Is there not reason to apprehend that such may be the operation of a high import-limit; whether it be the 80s. at present enacted, or such higher rate as the importunity of the agricultural associations may wrest from government? May it not, in all probability, like the bounty of the last century, cause an application of capital and labour to farming, to an extent productive of an excess of growth and a ruinous depression of price?

This consideration leads us to say a few words on the Corn-bill of 1815; an act on which the Committee have made several pointed animadversions, but on which they might, we think, without the risk of being charged with partiality, have carried their censure farther: enlarging on the probable injury to our agriculturists from the temptation which we have noticed, particularly since, at the present reduced charges, the price of 80s. is equivalent to the farmer to 100s. in war. The writers of the Report, however, are evidently impressed with the notion that to increase the amount of our growth is a matter of great difficulty, and requires a recourse to inferior soils; and they seem by no means sufficiently aware that, in this as in other countries, the greatest additions to produce arise from the application of capital and labour to soils already under tillage.

Our Prospect of future Supply. — On this interesting head we have two remarks to make on the Report of the Committee: — first, that, in adverting (p. 17.) to the probable
increase

increase of a demand for corn from the continued advance of our population, no account is taken of the fact that, if the agricultural part of our countrymen augment their numbers in the same ratio as our merchants, manufacturers, and other consumers, the quantity of produce will keep pace with the increase of consumption. Relief from over-growth can thus be procured only by giving a new direction in point of employment to those who would otherwise become agriculturists; a direction such as appears to have taken place in the extension of our cotton-manufacture after 1780, or such as is now carrying into effect before our eyes in emigration to Upper Canada and the western states of America.

Our next remark on the Report requires a fuller development. It relates to the passage (p. 11.) in which the Committee, adverting to the chance of deficient harvests in future, assert that the magnitude of our consumption, as compared with that of former periods, must render the pressure of a deficient harvest more severe and the means of providing against it more difficult. 'A harvest,' they add, 'which should be one-third below an average in wheat, would bring on this country a very different degree of suffering, and would require a very different degree of exertion and sacrifice, to supply the deficiency, from what would have been required under a similar failure fifty years ago.' From this inference we altogether dissent, and on grounds which, we trust, will be found satisfactory. If the agricultural part of our countrymen increase their numbers in proportion to the consumers, if the amount of produce depend on the extent of labour and capital applied to cultivation, and if a recourse to the inferior soils mentioned repeatedly in the Report (and in Mr. Ricardo's well known work) be far less necessary than an improved cultivation of the better soils, we stand nearly in the situation of our forefathers, and find the prospect of adequacy of supply very little affected by the increase of our numbers; because that increase brings with it the power of augmenting our produce. If such be the case at home, the prospect abroad is decidedly improved since the extension of tillage in other parts of the world. The extent of corn-country in Europe (we mean of country producing corn in sufficiency for export) has yet been far from large; comprizing only Great Britain, Ireland, the north of France, the north of Germany, Denmark, and Poland. In these kingdoms, all situated between the 45th and 55th degree of latitude, a greater similarity of temperature prevails than may be supposed by those who have not travelled, or who have not attended to the correspondence

spondence of the seasons throughout the northern half of Europe. Corn was dear on the Continent as well as in England in 1812 and 1816, and in each year from causes common to both: — in the former, a dryness tending to blight; in the latter, a superabundance of wet, which prevented the ripening of the corn except in the most favoured situations. A better prospect is now opening to us. The extension of tillage in the south of Poland, and on the shores of the Euxine, does not indeed render it practicable to transport wheat to England at the price of 25s. per quarter, as stated by Mr. Curwen, in his answer to the Agricultural Report; and still less at the price of 12s., as mentioned by him in parliament in February last, on the faith of a loose assertion by a Polish land-holder: but it gives a hope of occasional supply from a region not likely to be affected by the causes which create disappointment in our climate. A similar remark may be applied to the increased cultivation of the United States; and, though the amount of the flour and rice which we might transport in a year across the Atlantic, added to the corn which we might import from the Euxine, might not and probably would not exceed the consumption of a fortnight, the relief would be sensibly felt in an article which fluctuates so much on a slight difference of supply.

This is likely to be our situation at a future time: but at present we must look for our chief relief, in a season of dearth, from countries nearer home; viz. Flanders, the north of Germany, or the north of Poland. Nothing, however, can be more adverse to the provision of an occasional supply of this nature than our present corn-law; which, far from authorizing our capitalists to invest money in the purchase of corn when it is cheap and abundant in foreign states, discourages all connection with those countries, except in years which, in consequence of the similarity of latitude and climate, are likely to be seasons of dearth with them as well as with us. If our consumption exceeded our growth, as was generally the case between 1773 and 1814, and were the restraints on importation confined to the charge of conveyance and to a moderate duty, the price of our corn might be kept somewhat higher than on the Continent; while between this and the corn-countries of Europe a regular exchange of manufactures for produce might be established. At present, the effect of our law is such as to place it out of the power of the foreigner to buy our manufactures; and, by obliging him to fabricate for himself, it forces us to pay in specie for the purchases that we make in a season of dearth: the bad effects of which on our
exchange

exchange with the Continent require no explanation, so strikingly were they exemplified in 1817.

As we have still much to offer on this interesting subject, we shall resume the discussion of it in our next Number.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VIII. *Mr. Hughes's Travels in Sicily, Greece, and Albania.*

[*Art. concluded from p. 126.*]

OF the learning illustrative of the antient Delphi, Mr. Dodwell has been by no means sparing in his recent valuable work: but, on the whole, we prefer the delineations of this stupendous scene with which Mr. Hughes has favoured us. The exact site of the Pythian temple seems never to have been satisfactorily ascertained. Wheler imagined that it stood on the spot now occupied by a Greek chapel, inclosed within the peribolus of an antient temple, but his supposition is in defiance of all historical induction. Dodwell conjectured rightly that it was to be traced somewhere in the wretched village of Castri: but Mr. Hughes appears intitled to the merit of its actual discovery, and his hypothesis is confirmed by a learned dissertation on the site of the Delphic temple, by Dr. Butler, master of Shrewsbury school, which he has inserted in the Appendix.

‘ From hence we passed through the wretched lanes of Castri to the palace of Apollo. Having gained admittance into the shed, we found it so dark and filthy, so full of a corrupted atmosphere from old olive husks and the lees of wine, that we made a hasty retreat until a light could be procured, and the place ventilated by admission of the external air: after a considerable lapse of time our messenger returned with a small wax taper, which he had probably abstracted from some picture of the Panagia, for the only lights burned by the poor inhabitants are the dades, or slips of dry wood from the fir called *pinus picea*. By the faint glimmering of this taper we began to explore the recesses of a building which appears actually to have been part of the great Pythian temple, though it be now degraded to so mean an appropriation. The wall which forms the northern side of the present shed, composed of large blocks of hewn stone, is nearly covered with antique inscriptions, those charms which our clerical guide attributed to the work of Genii. These, from the porous nature of the stone, the corrosion of time, and accidental defacement, appear to defy the ingenuity of man to decypher: at least he who attempts the work ought to have a better day, better health, and longer time than fell to my lot at this period. After much consideration I at length fixed upon one block which seemed to offer
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the best chance of success, after which I was obliged to sit upon a heap of filth in a very painful posture to copy it, whilst Mr. Parker with great good-nature and patience held the wax-taper close to the stone. The characters were so uncouth, so many were effaced, and the stone so much decayed, that the document did not prove so satisfactory as I could have wished : but I was unable either to re-copy it or to attempt another, since the operation had cost me already near three hours of painful labour : still it was a pleasure to discover in it the name of the Pythian Apollo, which certainly tends to strengthen the conjecture, that the wall on which it is inscribed formed one side of the Pythian cella. —

‘ It would be imprudent to attempt a literal translation of this inscription ; the lacunæ are too numerous, and the inaccuracies too great ; yet when I consider the nature of the inscribed tablet, and all the inconveniences attending the operation of transcribing it, I am rather surprised that so much sense can be elicited.

‘ In the first line the month Pokius is mentioned, and the archonship of Strategus.

‘ In the second we find the month Heracleius, when a lady named Dicæa, with the consent of her two sons Dorotheus and Aristomachus sold to the temple of the Pythian Apollo what from the letters of certain disjointed words appear to be one or more slaves, for the sum of three minæ of silver, and that the bargain was made according to law : in witness whereof the names of Nauxeinus, Callistratus, Dexitheus, and Damosenus, citizens of Amphissa, are subscribed.’

It is with reluctance that we pass over the learned and elaborate history of the successive Pythian temples, which follows, and hasten to that part of Mr. Hughes's expedition which brought him into a close and familiar contact with Ali Pasha, the extraordinary chieftain who sways the fortunes of so large a portion of Greece. Mr. Hobhouse and Dr. Holland have furnished us with many interesting particulars both of Albania and its ruler : but, as the long residence of Mr. Hughes in Ioannina, the capital of his dominions, gave him more immediate opportunities of studying the policy and delineating the character of that powerful barbarian, he has been enabled to impart much interesting information which is not to be found in those authors.

From Salōna, (the antient Amphissa,) our travellers determined to proceed by sea to Prevesa on the gulf of Actium, whence a journey of two or three days would bring them to the capital of Epirus. They anchored at the island of Santa Maura, which has obtained considerable importance since the occupation of Prevesa and the other ex-Venetian towns on the Albanian coast by Ali Pasha. It contains 12,000 inhabitants : but the quarantine-laws, which now extend through all the
Ionian

Ionian islands, prevented Mr. H. from visiting the site of the temple of Apollo, or the famous promontory whence Sappho and other despairing lovers took their last leap, the "*Leucata nimbose cacumina montis*." From Santa Maura they sailed in a small boat, and in a few hours saw the towers and forts of Prevesa dimly peering above the waves. The city itself presented a prospect truly oriental, with its gorgeously painted seraglios, forts, and minarets, surrounding that fine inlet of the Ambracian gulf where Octavius and Antony contended for the empire of the world; while the dark mountains of Suli, and the snow-capt summits of Pindus, form the most magnificent back ground that can be pictured to the imagination.

Prevesa is a deplorable monument of the curses inflicted by despotism on mankind. It was once a flourishing town, blessed with an incomparable soil and a delicious climate: it carried on the finest fishery in the Ionian sea; in short, says our traveller, it combined every advantage both of agriculture and commerce, and there, if any where, the visions of the golden age might be realized. Since Ali Pasha overthrew it, having defeated the French garrison under General Salsette, a melancholy change has taken place; and it is reduced to a population of 3000, who, worn down by famine and disease, stalk like spectres through the deserted streets. 'The tears trickled down the cheeks of our venerable host while he recounted to us his misfortunes. He had been obliged to pay annually an exaction of 3000 piastres, though he had no means (the last remnant of his olive-trees having been taken from him and given to an Albanian officer) of paying it. A lingering death by famine, as hundreds of his fellow-citizens had perished, seemed to await the poor man and his aged wife.' Prevesa is, however, a favourite residence of the Pasha, and contains both his great naval depôt and the finest of his palaces. — Nicopolis, the city of victory, founded by Augustus in memory of the battle of Actium, was diligently explored by Mr. Hughes; to whose perspicuous narrative, and excellent notes, we must refer for a more particular elucidation of its remains. It is lamentable to reflect on the vicissitudes of flourishing cities. The Pasha is now making excavations among the splendid ruins of Nicopolis, and magnificent shafts and highly-wrought entablatures are carried off to be worked up in his forts and serai at Prevesa; — the proudest memorials of the glory of Augustus thus supplying decorations to the mansion of an Albanian robber! Those who are addicted to antiquarian research will be gratified by Mr. H.'s minute description of the ruins of the vast theatre, a Roman building on a Grecian plan.

plan. (Vol. i. p. 418.) The proscenium is 116 feet in breadth; in depth only 28 from the hyposcenium to the spot on which the actors entered. Here is the great difference between the antient and our modern theatres. The former seem to have allowed too little room for stage-effect; and the circumstance shews very pointedly that the antient audiences were not so much affected by pomp and spectacle, as we might be inclined to infer from the sarcasm of Horace on the theatrical taste of his day.

For a considerable distance, the road to Arta (the antient Ambracia), which nearly equalled an English turnpike-road, follows the bending of the gulf: but nothing now remains of the former splendor of Ambracia, except its Cyclopean citadel. From Arta, the travellers proceeded by a gradual descent into the plains of Ioannina; and a gentle eminence brought the city to their view, glittering with mosques and palaces, stretched along the shore of its magnificent lake. In a large open space occupied by vast cemeteries, they had a fine prospect of the grand serai of Litaritza, belonging to Ali Pasha, and those of Mouchtar and Vely, his sons. The interior of the city was like others in Turkey, that part of the houses which faces the street being only a bare wall; and their windows, galleries, and doors communicating with the interior court. Still a degree of neatness and stability was observable in the habitations of Ioannina, that is not often seen in Grecian towns. The vizir had ordered for Mr. H.'s reception the house of Signore Nicolo Argyri, the son of a Greek gentleman, who had amassed vast wealth by successful commerce: but his beneficence was unbounded, and Ioannina, when she lost Anastasio Argyri Bretto, lost her best benefactor. His funeral obsequies were attended by half the city, and every person was anxious to impress a parting kiss on his hand. He was the bosom-friend of the Pasha, who rarely passed a day out of his society.

The first trait of Ali's character, mentioned by Mr. Hughes, is a specimen of the basest ingratitude:

'A few days after the interment of old Anastasi, the pasha called Nicolo into his presence to condole with him upon the loss they had mutually sustained. At the conclusion of the conference, however, he took occasion to introduce the subject of his father's will, expressing his entire satisfaction that his old friend had remembered him in it, since he understood that he had bequeathed him all his fine lands, gardens, and orange-groves in the vicinity of Arta, a legacy which he had indeed always promised him during his lifetime. Poor Nicolo was struck with consternation, being deprived at one blow of the best part of his inheritance:

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he just ventured to observe that he had not remarked any such item in his father's testament, although he certainly had bequeathed to his Highness a diamond ring of great value. At these words the vizir's countenance changed suddenly from that serenity in which he had studiously clothed it, and he declared vehemently that a son who thus violated the respect due to so excellent a father, in neglecting to fulfil his last promises, was not fit to live: Nicolo began now to tremble for his head; a possession upon which he set a still greater value than his land; he was therefore glad to appease the tyrant's wrath by a speedy compromise, and humbly besought him to accept both of the Arta estates and the ring, since the intention of his father was perfectly clear, although most *unaccountably* no document respecting it had been discovered. — Nicolo's extravagancies and debaucheries soon gave the vizir opportunities to strip him of his remaining property, and reduce him to the miserable state in which we found him, inhabiting a large mansion, with a revenue scarcely able to keep up the establishment of a cottage.'

The first interview with Ali Pasha is thus described:

* Having passed through the outer gates of the great court (of the serai of Litaritza) we found it crowded with a numerous retinue of guards, loitering about or seated on the ground and smoking pipes; intermingled with these, agàs and beys might be distinguished by jackets embroidered till they were as stiff as coats of mail, tatars by the lofty bonnet, dervishes by the sugar-loaf cap, chaoushes by their golden-knobbed sticks, and here and there a poor petitioner by his supplicating looks and dejected air. At the second gate, which leads into an inner area, is a small room, where the pasha now sat listening to petitions and deciding causes, in the gate. Indeed he very much simplifies judicial proceedings, setting archons, muftis, cadis, and every other officer at defiance; his will is the only statute-book: in criminal matters, that admirable maxim of British jurisprudence, which tends to prevent the execution of one innocent man, though nine guilty should escape, is here totally reversed, — hang ten provided you secure the offender. We entered the palace through a mean kind of hall, which is turned into a coach-house. From this place we ascended a flight of narrow slippery stone steps, into the habitable part of the seraglio, which is upon the first floor. Passing through a large room, which is appropriated to the retinue of the court, we were ushered into a very fine saloon, well furnished and adorned with gilding and carved wood: the floor was covered with a rich Persian carpet of immense size, the sofas of the divan were of the best Cyprus velvet fringed with gold, and the windows, formed of the largest plate-glass, brought into view the fine expanse of the lake with its magnificent mountain-scenery. — We waited in this room about half an hour, during which time we were subjected to the inspection of nearly all the officers, slaves, and eunuchs of the palace. —

At length a chaoush came to announce that his Highness was ready to receive us; and we descended down the great staircase, impatient to view this extraordinary character. As we approached the audience-chamber, I felt my heart palpitate at the thought of entering into the presence of a being whose steps in his dark career were marked indelibly by the stain of blood! At the entrance of his apartment stood several Albanian guards, one of whom opened the door, and we marched into the room saluting the vizir as we entered, who sat upon a lion's skin at an angle of the divan, handsomely dressed: — a houka stood near him, which he is rather fond of exhibiting, as the use of it shews a considerable strength of lungs. As soon as we were seated upon the divan he returned our salutation by placing his right hand upon his breast with a gentle inclination of his head, and expressed his satisfaction at seeing us in his capital. He then asked if we spoke Romaic. Colonel Church, though an excellent linguist, for political reasons pretended total ignorance of the language; Mr. Cockerell, from his intimate acquaintance with the manners of the Turks who admire reserve in youth, dissembled his true knowledge; whilst Mr. Parker and myself confessed an ignorance which our short residence in Greece had not yet enabled us to overcome. — In the present instance Mr. Foresti acted as interpreter-general. At a first introduction it could not be expected that we should acquire much insight into the character of this pasha: my own attention was directed chiefly to the contemplation of his countenance; and this is in general no index of his mind. Here it is very difficult to find any traces of that blood-thirsty disposition, that ferocious appetite for revenge, that restless and inordinate ambition, that inexplicable cunning, which has marked his eventful career: the mien of his face on the contrary has an air of mildness in it, his front is open, his venerable white beard descending over his breast gives him a kind of patriarchal appearance, whilst the silvery tones of his voice, and the familiar simplicity with which he addresses his attendants, strongly aid the deception. —

Still after very attentive consideration I thought I could perceive certain indications of cruelty and perfidy beneath his grey eyebrows, with marks of deep craftiness and policy in the lineaments of his forehead; there was something sarcastic in his smile, and even terrible in his laugh. His address was engaging, his figure very corpulent: his stature is rather below the middle size, and his waist long in proportion; he appears to greatest advantage as we now saw him seated on the divan, or on horseback. —

Soon after our entrance, some young boys dressed in rich garments, with their fine hair flowing over their shoulders, presented us with pipes, whose amber heads were ornamented with jewels: others brought us coffee in small china cups with golden soucups. Our conversation was very desultory. The vizir paid many handsome compliments to our country, assuring us that he should always feel happy whilst his territories afforded objects of curiosity and interest to his English friends. We assured him in return, that

that the theatre of *his exploits* would long continue to attract the regards not only of the English but all other nations. He seemed pleased at the compliment, inquired with much apparent interest respecting Lord Byron and Mr. Hobhouse, asked us how long we had left Athens, and whether any discoveries had been made there lately by excavations. — Observing that I was incommoded by sitting close to an immense fire piled up with logs of wood upon the hearth, he directed an Albanian attendant to place a large metal pan before me in lieu of a screen, saying, “Young men require no fire at all; when I was young, I lived upon the mountains in the midst of snows and exposed to storms, with my *tou-phéki* on my shoulder and my Albanian capote, but I never cared for the cold.” He then turned to Colonel Church with an air of the greatest affability, for whatever displeasure he may feel he can mask it by the most complete veil of hypocrisy, and expressed his hopes that he would stay at least a month with him in Ioannina: this invitation was politely declined under plea of military orders, which obliged the Colonel to leave Albania next day: upon this the vizir requested another conference with him in the morning before his departure, and addressing himself to us said he hoped he should see us frequently, adding in the true style of oriental hyperbole, that his palace and all he possessed must be considered as our own. The conference was now broken up and we departed.

It was impossible to have visited Ioannina at any time more favourable to the views of the author, as Ali Pasha was then entertaining strong hopes of advantage from a political connection with Great Britain. Having rendered considerable services during the war to his British allies, he confidently expected the cession of some insular dependency at its conclusion; for he had long anxiously desired a footing in the Ionian isles, as well for the establishment of a more powerful marine and commercial depôt, as for a place of security against any unfortunate reverses. He therefore cultivated the acquaintance and conciliated the regard of every Englishman; and this favourable disposition, aided by the influence of Mr. Foresti, the British resident, induced this stern chieftain to treat Mr. Hughes and his party with an attention which he never shewed before to travellers of any nation.

Ioannina having been described by Dr. Holland and Mr. Hobhouse, we omit the present traveller's account of it. Between the bazar and the castron is a short street, in which is the city guard-house; the scene of the most cruel executions, when the vizir wishes to make a striking example. Here (Mr. Hughes states the fact from unquestionable authority, and we repeat it with horror,) criminals have been roasted alive before a slow fire, impaled, and skinned alive; others have had their extremities chopped off, and been left to perish with the skin of the face stripped over their necks. — As Ioan-

nina is comparatively a modern city in Greece, it derives no interest from architectural remains.

Mr. Hughes visited the beautiful kiosk, or pavilion, belonging to Ali Pasha, at the northern extremity of the suburbs. It is situated in the midst of extensive gardens, laid out with exquisite taste, and is the favourite place of his relaxations. Here, in a small room in the garden, he frequently administers justice and transacts military business: but there are not less than thirty of these retirements in and about Ioannina; and, as the vizir selects a different one every day, it is never known exactly where he is to be found. This management by no means proceeds from terror, for he constantly rides on horseback attended only by a single guard. His very confidence seems to be his protection, and the multitude fancy that he bears a charmed life.

Several anecdotes of the Pasha's cruelty are recorded by Mr. Hughes, and some of them prompted us, as we read them, to exclaim with the benevolent humorist in *Tristram Shandy*, when he heard poor Lefevre's story from Trim, "Would to God, that we were asleep." It is soothing, however, to be told that, in many instances, the misfortunes of this unhappy people have been mitigated by the kindness and sometimes averted by the exertions of Mr. Foresti. From innumerable examples, the author has selected one, which strongly illustrates the character of the vizir, and the influence which the amiable consul had acquired over him.—It is not an unfrequent policy of the tyrant to keep up a spirit of fear and subjection, by occasionally throwing down to the lowest misery some person who has arrived at great prosperity, especially if he has risen by the Pasha's own assistance. Michael Michelachi, whose father had been one of the vizir's oldest and most faithful friends, was left by that person with all his fortune under the guardianship of his sovereign. Ali did justice to the trust, educated the youth with the utmost care, at his maturity delivered him the whole of his fortune, betrothed him to a rich heiress, and made him primate of the city:—but it suited the policy of the tyrant that the young man should fall. A set of witnesses were therefore suborned, who swore that Michelachi was in possession of the treasures which the Kalou Pasha's (Ali's predecessor) widow had secreted at her husband's death; and Michelachi, being confronted with these wretches, was ordered to deliver up the treasure on pain of death. Conscious innocence, and disdain of so base an accusation, probably dictated an answer too high for the haughty spirit of Ali: who, in a tremendous tone, and with a countenance of the most horrid malignity, ordered the prisoner to the

the buldrun, a dark and damp dungeon, where he was heavily chained to the ground. Terror and despair took possession of Ioannina. Persons of all ranks and conditions went to the serai to intercede with the vizir, but he was too indignant to be approached, and saw nobody during the day. Mr. Foresti had returned from a journey late that evening, and found a deputation of the chief Greeks at his house, to inform him of what had befallen poor Michelachi. It was impossible for him to see the vizir that night, but on the next morning he arose with the sun, and made his appearance at the seraglio as soon as Ali had performed his morning ablutions.

“ Mr. Foresti, having sent in his name, was admitted to the presence of the Pasha, and entered upon a conversation in the ordinary routine of business, in order that he might not appear to come for the purpose of counteracting his designs. At last he casually observed, “ I see a vast number of people about the serai this morning, and the city also is quite in an uproar : I inquired the cause, but no one would explain it to me till my cook informed me that you have put to death my friend Michelachi. As I knew him to be an excellent man, I have to thank your Highness for not committing this act whilst the dragoman was here, who might have spread very disgraceful intelligence about us at Constantinople.” (V.) in a quick tone, “ Ah! but I have not killed him, he is alive at present.” (F.) “ Then God be praised, I am heartily glad of it.” (V.) “ But he has treated me shamefully ; *ταυτί με* *, my very heart burns within me at this conduct ; how could a man whom I have brought up from his infancy in my own bosom make me this return !” (F.) “ Indeed if he has treated you so, I shall be the first to condemn him ; but has any opportunity been given him to prove his innocence ? and who are his accusers ?” (V.) “ Oh ! a great many persons, both men and women, came here, and before the archbishop took solemn oaths, after kissing the Christian crucifixes, to the truth of their accusation.” (F.) “ That may be ; but are these accusers people of credit ? and can you even believe their oaths against the word of such a man as you know Michelachi to be ? Consider what people will say at the Porte, and what my government will think, when they hear that you have put to death or ruined one of your best friends upon such evidence !” (V.) “ But, *ταυτί με*, what can I now do, implicated as I am in this affair ?” (F.) “ Why order instantly an examination concerning it.” (V.) “ Will you then take it into your hands and examine it ?” (F.) “ To be sure I will do so, for your sake, even more than that of Michelachi : but you must release him on security, for he is at this time in chains, and may perish before his innocence can be proved.” (V.) “ Take him then to

* “ My son,” a familiar expression, which he uses to an intimate acquaintance.

the chamber over the treasury, station there a guard to prevent escape, and God prosper you in the business."

Mr. Foresti had little more to do. Taking with him the two primates of the city and the archbishop, they released the prisoner, and proceeded to his mansion, where they found his young and beautiful wife surrounded by her children and some friends in the greatest agony: they comforted her with the assurance that her husband was safe, and for form's sake searched every part of the house for a treasure which they well knew had no existence. They then interrogated Michelachi and his accusers, which last were of course unable to substantiate their charge; upon this they returned to the vizir, and reported the prisoner guiltless. The tyrant then pretended to fall into a terrible rage against the wretches whom he had himself suborned, and declared that they should suffer the cruellest of deaths; and it was only at the entreaties of Michelachi, who threw himself at the vizir's feet, joined by those of Mr. Foresti, that this sentence was not executed immediately. By a compromise, made to save the vizir's credit, they were thrown into prison for a few months, and then released. Ali restored Michelachi again to favour, and has since more than once expressed his thanks to Mr. Foresti for saving him the disgrace and pain of putting an innocent person to death.

The second volume opens with some curious historical details respecting Ioannina, which are wholly original; and we owe many obligations to the industry and ingenuity of Mr. Hughes for having collected them. We cannot follow him into his learned view of the different nations who have inhabited Epirus, nor pursue the history of Ioannina through the middle ages to its present condition. The experienced eye of Ali Pasha saw the advantages of its strong central situation: he made it the focus of his extended dominion; and it has under him risen to its present splendor and magnitude. Its population is 40,000; and it contains two schools, in which the antient languages are taught, and to both of which are attached excellent libraries. The chief commerce of the place is with Constantinople, Russia, Venice, and Malta. In return for shawls, turbans, amber, from the former; velvets and hardware from Venice; from Russia, oxen and skins; from Malta, English manufactures and colonial produce; Ioannina exports cotton from Livadia, raw silk from Thessaly and Salöna, and sometimes grain. The imports are distributed over Epirus, and the merchants of Ioannina derive great profits from the trade. The climate is variable; the heat being oppressive in summer, and the cold intense in the winter. Fevers of all kinds are common, arising from various causes; such as habits of uncleanness, and insalubrious dwellings, but above all from the great number of Albanese troops who are quartered by the vizir on the citizens. All domestic com-

fort vanishes from a family on which sometimes forty of these abandoned soldiers are quartered. An old Turkish gentleman, whom Mr. Hughes knew, had been obliged for months to support fifty of them, and all for some imaginary offence which he had given to the Pasha.

Mr. H. had the good fortune to be invited to a Greek marriage-feast; and the coincidences of the modern ceremonies with those that were observed, on similar occasions, by the antient Greeks, are striking. A nocturnal procession always accompanies the bridegroom, when he leads his spouse from the paternal mansion; and the bride walks with slow and apparently reluctant steps, led by a matron on each side. Commentators have misunderstood St. Paul's expression *γυνῆκα περιλαβόν*, (1 Cor. c. ix. v. 6.) but this part of the ceremony seems to elucidate it.—On the following day, the archbishop placed the tinsel crowns on the new couple, lighted the tapers, and put the ring on the fingers. The loosening of the marriage-zone and the consummation are deferred till the third day, when the grand entertainment is given: but it seems that the marriage-feast is exclusively confined to the male guests, the sexes being separated at all convivial festivities. Copious libations to the rosy god succeed, with hymeneal songs to the discordant harmony of fiddles and guitars. Before supper, a fool or zany entertains the company by acting with a clown a kind of pantomime, the humour of which consists in practical jokes, such as hard raps on the clown's pate, which delighted the spectators. The Albanitico dance succeeded, of which Mr. Hughes gives a pleasing and a learned description. He is inclined to think that it is a remnant of the antient Pyrrhic dance: but we always understood the Pyrrhic to have been a military dance, *ενοπλίως ορχήσις*: see the note, vol. ii. p. 31. The rest of the entertainment we relate in Mr. Hughes's own words:

'When supper was announced we all sat down, except the bridegroom, whose presence was excused, at a long table plentifully supplied. In token of extreme civility, every person near us heaped food upon our plates, which sometimes presented such an heterogeneous mixture of fish, flesh, and fowl, that if we had been obliged to eat it this probably would have been our last meal. I observed a beautiful boy about six years old who sat next me cramming himself till he could scarcely breathe; the little urchin seemed so determined that I should follow his example that he generally put half his mess upon my plate. Mr. Parker happening to sneeze at this entertainment, he was quite electrified by the boisterous congratulatory *vivas* of the guests. This custom is very general in the south of Europe, and seems to

be a remnant of a very ancient superstition.* In the mean time the guests poured down copious draughts of wine, toasting the bride and bridegroom, the English Milordi, Signore Alessio, and others: and now it was that I fancied I could discover the meaning of old Anacreon in some of his Bacchanalian expressions from the manner in which these Grecian toppers drank, (*ἀμυστί*) many of whom filled two and others even three goblets with wine; then taking up one with the right hand they applied it to their lips pouring the contents of the other two into it with the left, and never moving the cup from the mouth till the whole of the liquor was dispatched: these triplets were received by the rest of the company with unbounded applause. Possibly the celebrated Thracian Amystis may have been a similar trial of Bacchanalian skill, and not a goblet, as it is generally rendered.

Neu multi Damalis meri
Bassum Threicia vincat AMYSTIDE.

The feast was kept up with great merriment and noise till Signore Melas came in to pay us the highest compliment in his power, by introducing us into the gynæconitis, where the ladies were assembled. In passing through the gallery or portico we observed a great quantity of rich bed-furniture, consisting of purple velvet embroidered with gold, which is always sent with the bride and displayed for public admiration upon these occasions. We had heard that Ioannina was celebrated for the beauty and fine complexion of its females; and certainly we were not disappointed when we entered into the apartment where a party of the most charming women in this capital were collected together. They sat in a large circle round the room, superbly attired; but the liquid lustre of their eyes put to shame the jewels that sparkled in their raven tresses. The reflection came forcibly across the mind, what brutes the men must be who could desert the society of such masterpieces of excelling nature, to indulge in the low gratifications of riotous intemperance! By the smiles and whispers that went round the circle, we soon perceived that our appearance excited much curiosity, and that our persons and every article of our dress became subjected to the minutest scrutiny. We were seated on each side the little bride, who was scarcely twelve years of age,

* The custom of "adoring the sneeze" is alluded to by many authors. Athenæus mentions it by the phrase *πταρμὲς προσκυνοῦν*, referring the origin of the custom to that general idea of sanctity which was attached to the head: *ὅτι ἱερὸν ἐνόμιζον τὴν κεφαλὴν*, lib. ii. c. 25. Xenophon in his Expedition of Cyrus (lib. iii.) relates the curious effect which an accidental sneeze had upon the whole Grecian army, who all with one accord adored it as a deity — *μὴ οἴμην ὡς θεῶν*. By many however the sneeze was considered rather in the light of a disease, or at least as the indication of one, and thence arose the ancient form of civility from the bystanders in the words *ZER ZONON*, from which the Italian *Viva* is derived, and the English expression of "God bless you."

and was comparatively so girlish that it required a great stretch of imagination to consider her in the character of a matron. She was magnificently dressed, the value of the jewels with which she was adorned being estimated at about 2000*l.*; an ancient family-appendage (that *παλαιὸν κτῆμα* of the Greek tragedians) in the shape of an old nurse, stood near her, and this Argus was actively employed in guarding her charge and repelling the advances of Signore Melas, who was anxious to impress the marks of his affection upon the lips of his betrothed. One of the Albanian guards having brought in coffee, the young lady arose and with a very pretty air handed it to Mr. Parker and myself, who were obliged to suffer this inversion of the right order of things and accommodate ourselves to the custom of the place. We observed that her manners and deportment were accompanied with a great share of mildness and affability; but her features had not sufficiently expanded to judge of their expression: it appeared to us that her countenance might become interesting but by no means handsome. She was a daughter of the chief primate of Ioannina, and her dowry was said to be very considerable. After remaining about an hour in the gynæconitis we took our leave; but in quitting the room we remarked a number of faces peeping out of an opposite latticed window, and found that a large party of young unmarried girls had been keeping the feast in a different apartment, separated both from men and women. The band of music accompanied us back to our lodging, where we arrived about midnight.

As we do not pretend to give an exact analysis of Mr. Hughes's voluminous work, we must pass over much of the interesting information which his residence at Ioannina enabled him to collect: but the most valuable portion of his narrative is that which contains his minute biographical and political portraiture of Ali Pasha, and which is as correctly and vividly before our eye as if the barbarian had himself been sitting for it. The subsequent anecdote of him we must not withhold from our readers:

'This afternoon we thought proper to call and pay our respects to the vizir. We found him at his serai of Litaritza, in his favourite little Albanian room, the only one in which we ever saw him more than once. His prime minister was with him, named Mahomet Effendi, a silly old man who studies astrology and occult sciences till he thinks himself gifted with inspiration, and will pore for many hours together over an old globe, though he knows not whether the earth moves round the sun, or the contrary: but he is withal a violent bigot, fierce and implacable against heretics or unbelievers, and ready to execute the most horrid commands of his despotic ruler.

'The dress of the vizir both now and at other times appeared costly but never gaudy; his magnificence shone rather in the brilliants that actually covered the walls of this apartment. He is extremely fond of thus concentrating his wealth into a small compass;

certainly it is useful to guard against the possible effects of a reverse of fortune. A little before our arrival in his dominions he had purchased six pearls, said to be the largest in Europe, and since our departure he has bought a diamond from the ex-King of Sweden at the price of 13,000*l.* which, with a number of others, he has had formed into a star, in imitation of one which he saw upon the coat of Sir Frederic Adam: this he now wears upon his breast, and calls it "his order."

He was in such good humour this day that he would not suffer us to depart when we had finished our first pipe, but ordered a second and a third: he spoke freely upon the reverses of Bonaparte, informed us of the defection of Murat from the French cause, and called for a very fine Turkish map of Europe that we might point out to him the geographical situation of the armies at this time contending about the liberties of the world. He appeared very ignorant, like all the Turks, in geography, not knowing where to look for Malta, or even for Ancona, which it behoved him much to know as an important seaport opposite his own coasts. Mr. Pouqueville indeed assured me, that Ali once questioned him upon the expediency of sending a ship of war to be coppered and rigged at Paris, and at another time wished the French army a fair wind to carry them to Vienna. Constantinople being a seaport, the Turks presume to think that every other capital city must necessarily be so too. Our conversation turned chiefly upon the great military events at this time pending: he spoke of his own wars as petty actions in comparison with the extensive operations of the great continental armies; though, subsequently, when I was better able to converse with him in Romaic, he related some of his adventures with great apparent satisfaction. He asked us how we liked his Albanian room; and upon our expressing approbation of its comfortable appearance, he said, with some degree of vanity, that in this he was his own architect. At our leaving the palace he requested us to call frequently upon him, and as usual made us an offer of all his possessions.

It is not an uncommon thing with Ali Pasha to dispose of the females of his harem to the officers of his troops, whether Greeks, Turks, or Franks: but he displays no great liberality in so doing; for he has about 500 female victims, guarded by eunuchs, in the recesses of his seraglio. Before age had chilled his blood, his sensuality was unbounded. Whenever he heard of a beautiful child, it was dragged from its home, and the family massacred, or even the village burned, if resistance was offered. One of his most lovely females, in the act of pledging her vows to a fine young man, was torn from the altar; and, unable to bear the loss, or to avenge it, the bridegroom blew out his brains with a pistol.

Ali's court is supported with considerable splendor and expence. In addition to his proper officers, his palaces are crowded with a multitude of dependents, skilled in all the arts
of

of adulation. While Mr. Hughes was at Ioannina, a Turkish dervish and a Greek artizan had cheated him of large sums under the pretence of making a panacea, or elixir, which was to render him immortal.

This barbarian is peculiarly ingenious in extorting money from his subjects. At the dawn of day, the travellers were alarmed by the cries of their old hostess, Nicolo's mother, who ran up howling and crossing herself, entreating them to interfere in her behalf with the Pasha. The cause of all this affliction was, that his Highness had that morning sent her a present of ten kiloes of wheat. Astonished that so handsome a gift should have raised this storm of emotion, Mr. H. and his friend were inclined to think that she was out of her senses, until the by-standers informed them that this present must be remunerated at double the market-price, and that the messenger was in the house waiting for the money. Once, however, this execrable tyrant had nearly gone too far. In 1812, having taken advantage of a deficient season to establish a monopoly of corn, the wretched populace, reduced to the bitterest extremity, assembled in vast crowds round his serai, demanding bread or death. The Albanian guards were about to fire, but Ali ordered them to forbear, and told the people that, if they would disperse, they should be satisfied. Mr. Hughes enumerates a variety of other tricks practised by this unfeeling despot to raise money : — but his grand system is that of the chifflicks. His aim is to be the greatest landed proprietor in his dominions, and with this view he contrives to buy the portion of some indigent owner ; or, if he is unable to effect a purchase, he sends troops successively to make a long sojourn in the devoted villa : when the accumulated miseries of this military visitation drive the inhabitants to despair ; and, throwing up the land into the tyrant's hands, they are contented to remain on it as tenants at will, receiving a small portion of the produce for the labour of cultivation. Thus the free villa becomes a chifflick : that is, the vizir first takes his usual tithe of the produce, and the remainder is divided into three portions, of which he receives two. When we peruse these details, we blush for the patience of mankind. The country thus governed is little better than a dreary dungeon to its population : escape or emigration is impossible : no man can travel without a special licence : the frontiers and passes are strictly guarded ; and, if any person should go beyond the barriers, his property would be confiscated, and his family cast into prison.

Of these volumes a large space is devoted to the biography of this savage, of whom our readers must by this time have read more than enough. It is a more regular and detailed
account

account of his adventurous life than we have before seen, and the causes of his elevation are more accurately traced in it, the whole reflecting the highest credit on the author. In this valuable document, the fortunes of Ali are followed from their beginning; tracing his singular progress from the captainship of a band of robbers to his acquisition of the pashalick; with his enterprize against the Suliotes, and their heroic and persevering resistance, down to the unfortunate events which destroyed the independence and happiness of Parga (that indelible stain on the British councils):—a series of events illustrating the treachery, cruelty, and talents of an individual, whom for wise but mysterious purposes Providence seems to have permitted to exist as the scourge and terror of his species. This part of the work concludes with an admirable summary of his character:—but we must take our leave of Mr. Hughes, with a reflection or two, which the perusal of his volumes has strongly forced on our minds.

The condition of the modern Greeks is well calculated to move the sympathies of every generous bosom in their behalf. If the remark of Madame de Staël be just, that Italy is as interesting a subject of contemplation on account of what it is capable of being hereafter, as it is when we consider what it has been in former ages, with how much force does the observation apply to Greece? Appearances have of late been perceptible in this beautiful country, which inspire us with an undefined and mysterious hope that she may start up from her lethargy, and assert once more a name among nations. Whether these indications are the opening beams of freedom and happiness to that oppressed race, or the deceitful gleams of a vaporous atmosphere, is for the present hidden within the secret destinations of Him who metes out to empires and states the periods of rise, decay, and renovation: but much is previously to be done, before the moral soil will be fit for culture. Superstition has so debased and emasculated the universal mind of the country, that the gift of freedom would for the present be little more than nominal, and it is only from a more advanced state of public knowledge that so sublime a vision can be realized:

*“Hunc igitur terrorem animi, tenebrasque necesse est,
Non radii solis, neque lucida tela diei
Discidiant, sed nature species ratioque.”*

LUCRET. l. i. v. 147.

We rejoice, therefore, to find from the testimony of Mr. Hughes, as well as from other travellers in Greece, that literature is rapidly awakening in that country. At Athens, at Ioan—

Ioannina, and at Zante, institutions liberally endowed and judiciously framed have for some time subsisted, from which the most flattering omens may be derived of an ameliorated education, and of the general and diffusive ardour with which the antient writers are cultivated by the rising generation. It is from these beginnings that we anticipate an auspicious change in the moral and political condition of Greece: for a familiarity with those high models must by degrees animate them into warm and inextinguishable aspirations after that freedom to which they owed their greatness;—that ψυχὴ ἀβάρτος, that untrodden soul, without which a nation can never arrive at real and durable glory.

ART. IX. *Memoirs of the Life of Nicholas Poussin.* By Maria Graham, Author of a Journal of a Tour in India, &c. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

THIS biographical sketch, which bears evident marks of a French origin, can scarcely claim the praise due to original composition; for it consists chiefly of the chain of incidents which marked the life of Poussin, interspersed with those general reflections on the principles of his art, and those remarks on his particular style, which are either openly borrowed from the great oracles of criticism, or present themselves naturally to the discriminating spectator on a view of the master-pieces of this great painter. Appended to the work is a translation of two dialogues of Fénelon, containing a lively and minute description of two of Poussin's pictures, with a descriptive and critical enumeration or catalogue of his works: forming altogether a compilation amusing to the general reader, instructive to the aspiring artist, and generally beneficial to society, by presenting an example of genius, industry, and rectitude, triumphing after long struggles over every obstacle which obscurity, want, and misfortune could oppose to their progress. It is really pleasant, after having sympathized in the difficulties and admired the perseverance of Poussin, to behold him at last at the very goal of his desires; happy in "that which should accompany old age, as honour, love, obedience, troops of friends," and in the more substantial blessings of worldly competence and ease.

Some of our readers may not know that Nicholas Poussin was a painter formed in the Roman or severe school; and that, consequently, the object of his ambition was the sublime, or, in other words, correctness of drawing, elegance of design, grandeur of conception, and the expression of pas-

sion:

sion : in the pursuit of which, he sacrificed what according to his school are subordinate aims, the perfections of colouring and *chiaro 'scuro*. The bent of his genius inclined him to the study of the antique ; and that he was eminently learned in the mythology, poetry, manners, and costume of the antients, abundantly appears by that profusion of charming pictures, in which the most luxuriant and elevated fancy is chastized and regulated by a strict adherence to all that has been transmitted to us of the records of antiquity. Though, however, he was not a colourist, he has left pictures which shew how he might have excelled in this department of the art, if he had not deemed it unworthy of his industry. It is to be lamented, indeed, that these two requisites to the perfect picture, colouring and expression, are so seldom found united : yet, if it is decreed by the limitation of human powers that they must be for ever separated, we cannot hesitate in awarding our preference. Though the senses may drink to intoxication the splendor and voluptuousness of the Flemish and Venetian school, our deepest homage belongs to that manner which awes and penetrates our inmost heart ; and of which the favourite subjects are well calculated to renew those religious impressions, which are apt to be effaced by the pleasures and the cares of life.

Poussin's strength lay in action and the energies of passion, not in sweetness and tranquillity. Hence his holy families, of which he painted eighteen, are much inferior to those of Raffaele, Guido, and other masters of love and beauty : — but, in the repose of inanimate nature, in his landscapes, he is almost unrivalled, “ so that the inspirations of the antient pastoral poets seem to have descended upon him.”

The greatest triumph of art, perhaps, consists in the power of changing the horrible and shocking into the awful and pathetic. Subjects simply painful and revolting then become, by the magic of genius, sources of a refined and exalted enjoyment. We speak of such representations as the sufferings of the Saviour, martyrdoms of saints, the murder of the innocents, and a variety of repulsive spectacles of the same kind, which, in unskilful hands, present only scenes of cruelty, blood, and butchery : but which, by the spells of such masters as Raffaele, Guido, Dominichino, and Poussin, are made to steal our very souls, and steep them in a chaste and severe delight. These opposite effects proceed, doubtless, from the difference between the mere imitation of things as they are in common and vulgar life, and that power of representing nobly and beautifully which is the exclusive property of genius.

Before

Before we give any abstract of this interesting life, we must indulge ourselves with a brief comment on some parts of the preface. We have read much and seen something of the ardour of students in the pursuit of the fine arts : but, as it is our business to speculate on the passions of others, we endeavour to keep ourselves clear of the enthusiasms which sometimes animate and sometimes mislead. We may, therefore, be pardoned for thinking that there is something in the following receipt to make a painter, as appalling to the enterprise of the youthful artist as that fearful catalogue of qualifications which Imlac assures us are necessary to form a poet :

‘ It is much but not enough for a painter to know the various forms of nature, to understand the management of colours, and to handle the pencil with dexterity. He must look into the minds of men, that he may understand their feelings and passions. He must be acquainted with history and poetry, that he may choose subjects worthy of his pencil ; with the customs and manners of nations, ancient and modern, that he may give his figures the dress and actions they require. The study of antiquity, anatomy, perspective with geometry, and architecture, are indispensable. And some knowledge of physical geography is necessary, that the vegetation and scenery may be true.’

Mrs. Graham is a warm advocate for the pretensions of the English school of painting ; and, as we are far from wishing to have the power to confute a doctrine so agreeable to our national feelings, we will satisfy ourselves with hoping that her opinion is founded rather in truth than in prejudice and partiality.

We now come to a narrative of the life ; the leading features of which we will sketch as briefly as possible.

The family of Nicholas Poussin was noble, though poor. He was born at Andelys in Normandy, in 1594, a place situated on the right bank of the Seine, among pleasant hills, ornamented with several picturesque Norman towers in its neighbourhood ; a scene well fitted to nurse the rising genius of the artist. At Andelys also resided the painter Quintin Varin, who was struck with the sketches of young Poussin, and adopted him as his pupil. To this master he owed the success of his future life : — but the study of Varin, and the little town of Andelys, could not satisfy the ambition of Poussin ; and at the age of eighteen he went alone, friendless and almost moneyless, to Paris. Under the painters Ferdinand Elle and L’Allemand, he formed a friendship with a young nobleman of Poitou ; and by him he was introduced to Courtois the king’s mathematician, who lent him prints and drawings of Raffaele and Giulio Romano, which first taught him

to conceive his subjects nobly and historically. The young nobleman took him to his country-seat, to employ him in the decoration of his house: but his mother, being of a low and narrow mind, endeavoured to degrade Poussin into a domestic drudge, and by her pride and harshness finally drove him away. He travelled on foot, supporting himself by painting, but was obliged to labour so severely that, on his arrival at Paris, he was seized with a dangerous illness, which compelled him to return to his father's house at Andelys; where he painted for a year at very low prices. As soon as his health would permit, he set off for Rome, to improve his taste by the study of the best models, but could get no farther than Florence for want of money. On his return to Paris, he diligently studied the sciences connected with his art; viz. anatomy, optics, and perspective. Duchesne was then employed in painting the Luxembourg palace, and engaged Poussin to assist him; who afterward made a second attempt to reach Rome, but fell sick at Lyons, and was supported by a merchant whose kindness he repaid by painting. When he again came back to Paris, he found an opportunity of displaying his talents in a series of pictures for the Jesuits; and from this period, his reputation being established, he gained many friends and patrons, among whom the poet Marini gave him an apartment in his house, and aided him in studying the Latin and Italian classics. At this time he obtained access to the most polished and learned society, and availed himself to the utmost of this advantage. When Marini returned to Rome, he pressed Poussin to accompany him: but, being engaged to supply some pictures, he deemed it his duty to refuse; though he afterward joined Marini, who died at Naples, recommending him to some powerful friends. In the absence, however, of these friends, he fell into extreme poverty, which obliged him to paint for very trifling remuneration: but at this time he was fortunate in lodging under the same roof with Francis Quesnoy, a Flemish sculptor, who introduced him to Algarde, an architect. With these artists he studied, and measured most of the antique statues then in Rome. He next applied intensely to optics, architecture, and anatomy, which last he studied from living models in the Roman schools of art. His increasing reputation and amiable qualities gained him much distinguished patronage and friendship; as well as access to the Barberini museum, where he was amply supplied with gems, cameos, and statues. About this time, an incident, by which he narrowly escaped the loss of the fingers of his right hand, determined him to adopt Rome as his country: A severe illness, by depriving him of the power of exertion;
again

again reduced him to poverty; when a countryman, named Jean Dughet, took him into his house, and nursed him till he recovered. He then married the eldest daughter of his benefactor. They had no children, and he adopted his wife's brother Gaspar, seventeen years younger than himself; who assumed his name, and followed his steps as a landscape-painter with singular success. With a part of his wife's portion, he bought a small house in a situation commanding the finest views of Rome; and here, with the exception of his journey to Paris, he passed the remainder of his life in a tranquil course of alternate labour and easy intercourse with his friends. In 1638, Cardinal Richelieu caused him to be invited to fix his residence in Paris: but, finding himself very comfortable at Rome, it was not till the King formally appointed him his first painter that he consented to accompany Monsieur de Chantellou, who was dispatched to fetch him. His reception was highly flattering: but his fame and prosperity soon created enemies, whose malignity and rivalry embittered all the pleasure of his honourable appointment at the French court, and finally made him return to Rome: not without wreaking a just and dignified revenge on the disturbers of his peace, by a picture representing a supernumerary labour of Hercules, in which the hero has overpowered Folly, Envy, and Ignorance, in the likeness of Fouquieres, Le Mercier, and Vouet. He was a second time invited to Paris by order of Cardinal Mazarin, but preferred the repose and enjoyment of Rome, with the pension of Louis XIII. continued to him by his successor. At Rome, therefore, he remained, contented, laborious, and happy, till he died in 1665, universally honoured, loved, and lamented.

We must add the eulogy on his character in Mrs. Graham's words:

‘Never, perhaps, was a private man more deeply regretted than Nicholas Poussin. The tempered vivacity of his conversation, the affectionate regard with which he treated his friends and relations, the modesty which prevented his giving offence, and the easy unostentatious manner in which he loved to discourse upon his art, rendered his society invaluable, both as a man and a painter.’

The account of his mode of life is interesting in itself, and a pleasing specimen of the author's style:

‘From the time of Poussin's return from Paris, he spent most of his time in his painting room, and seldom admitted any visitors there. His friends, however, used to wait for him on the terrace of the Trinità de' Monti, where his house was situated, and where he took his morning and evening walk; and his biographers have represented

represented him as an ancient philosopher surrounded by his disciples. In fact, his hours of exercise were rendered more delightful by intimate conversation with the learned and the polite, who crowded round him from all parts of Rome, to admire that dignified simplicity of manner and conversation, which was a part of the antique purity of taste which inspires his works, and regulated his whole life. Some of his sayings have been preserved. They are remarkable for good sense, and that kind of philosophy which is of most value in the conduct of life.

His contempt of superfluous wealth is so noble a feature of his character, that we cannot refrain from transcribing it :

‘ After the few first years of his residence in Rome, and still more after his return from Paris, Poussin might have commanded any fortune ; but his desires were very moderate, and after he had fixed the price of his pictures, which he rather under-valued, he specified the sum on the back of the piece : if after that any one sent him more than the price fixed, he returned the money. He had also a habit of accompanying each picture, when he sent it home, by a letter, explaining his reasons for the particular manner in which he had treated the subject ; thus answering beforehand whatever criticism it might meet with.’

It seems that Poussin could not resist the temptation, so often fatal to art, of endeavouring to represent the Supreme Being ; an attempt which necessarily involves the just punishment of a certain failure. We have always considered this as a proof of the imbecility of human pride, and of the impotence of genius when it exceeds its proper and rational limitations. As our Saviour appeared in the form and substance of our carnal nature, he may in some degree be considered as not beyond the scope of that art which, in spite of its pretensions to ideal perfection, must depend on the images of this “ visible diurnal sphere :” yet it is rarely that the idea of Christ is not degraded by the attempts to embody it in painting : so hard is it to transmit to the senses the conceptions of the soul, even when the materials consist of palpable things. How absurd and ridiculous, then, is the effort to adapt to our feeble and gross perceptions that inscrutable Being, who is utterly unknown to us but by his works and gracious revelation ; and of whom we can only adore the several attributes, without being able to combine them in any comprehensible shadowing of a whole !

In the course of this biographical sketch, we are presented with a detailed analysis of many of the artist's principal works, which will be interesting to those amateurs who are debarred from access to the paintings. To many persons, whose appetite for art is omnivorous, even such skeletons and shades

shades of the sublime originals will afford a repast not altogether unsavoury; and there is one which, notwithstanding our philosophical indifference, we cannot refrain from languishing to behold: we mean "The gathering of Manna in the Wilderness:" in which the painter is said to have adapted to his subject the very figures of the Laocoon, the Niobe, the Seneca, the Antinous, the Wrestlers, the Diana, the Apollo, and the Venus de Medicis, and to have 'thus peopled the desert with the grandest and most beautiful forms.'

The industry of this painter was admirable and extraordinary. Not contented with that knowledge of form which may be gained by an examination of pictures, and the practice of his own pencil, he frequently modelled the subjects which he intended to represent, in order that he might render his conceptions more accurate and just. The modelling also of objects which pleased him in the works of others was a repeated exercise, and contributed to perfect his consummate skill in the proportions of the human frame. The profession of a living model in the Roman schools of painting is held in honourable esteem; and those who practise it are skilful in imitating the attitudes of the antique statues, as well as of the figures and countenances in the most celebrated pictures.

It is time, however, to dismiss this life of Poussin; which is offered with so modest an air, and executed in such a spirit of honest application, that we have felt inclined rather to repose with it, as in the society of a humble though not unenlightened companion, than to exert our critical severity in too rigid a scrutiny of its imperfections. We take our leave of Mrs. Graham with respect and complacency, looking forwards to future pleasure from the products of her pen.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR JULY, 1821.

POETRY.

- Art. 10. *Henry Schultze, a Tale; the Savoyard, a French Republican's Story; with other Poems.* 12mo. 5s. 6d Boards. Ollier. 1821.

The story of the extraordinary tradesman who starved himself, *and kept a journal of the progress of his starvation*, was related in the news-papers about a year ago, as the author of 'Henry Schultze' admonishes us. There never was a more truly German tale; invented, perhaps, by a German fancy; and certainly recorded by a German professor. The present author has versified
REV. JULY, 1821. Y the

the story very well; conducting it in the *Byronian* style of mental dissection. The 'Savoyard,' however, shews with still better effect the powers of the author: so much more easy is it to imitate successfully the *manner* of Sir Walter Scott than that of Lord Byron. Let our readers recollect, if they please, the well-known burst —

"Call it not vain — they do not err," &c.

and yet the following will preserve its own rank of merit, even under so overwhelming a comparison:

'The Savoyard.'

'They are not lost, — though lost to earth, —
 They live, — though not to human eyes, —
 The varied forms of guilt or worth
 Which every passing day supplies.
 They rest in Being's general tomb,
 Futurity's portentous womb,
 Mid show and substance, things and souls,
 And all that Time before him rolls.
 Rolls from among the things that be,
 And lodges with Eternity: —
 They are not lost. The hour is near,
 When the dread whole shall re-appear;
 And every earthly act and aim
 Receive its proper place and name;
 Each heart's recess be open thrown,
 And all know all as they are known.

'Ah, then, what floods shall meet the ear,' &c. &c.

The beginning, too, of the tale itself is very well indeed; it has its imperfections, but they are borne down by the *energy* of the whole:

'Years now *are* fled, since I rambled,
 A lonely stranger, in the land
 Where 'lovel Pleasure long has gambolled,
 With sister Folly hand in hand;
 And still, surviving change and chance,
 Write shame upon thy forehead, France.
 And there I heard, — I hear it yet, —
 A tale my soul can ne'er forget.
 Deep on my thrilling brain 'twas then
 Engraved, as with an iron pen;
 And comes at every vacant hour
 With all its first o'erwhelming power:
 Long have I felt, I scarce know why,
 A wish to tell it ere I die.
 One Autumn's eve, the setting day
 Upon a dreary moorland found me,
 Alone, and weary, and astray,
 And nought with sense or speech around me.

In vain my way-worn steed I spurred,
 Or guide or shelter to descry:
 The whistling breeze, or startling bird,
 Was all that met the ear or eye.
 And now the sun descending fast
 O'er the long waste has looked his last;
 And in his parting purple beam
 The scattered grey-stones round me gleam.
 The upland pool is crimsoned o'er;
 And the old cross, with lichen hoar,
 Far to the westward, lone and high,
 Stands in relief against the sky.
 At last the whole is passed from sight,
 And leaves me to the lonely night.

This has that sure mark of genius, *distinctness*; this, like Dandie Dinmont's child, "is able to behave *distinctly*;" and, did our readers suffer as we do from the favourite modern school of "*The Indistinct*," sublime, or pathetic, or beautiful, they would not wonder at the consequence which we attach to the opposite antient quality.

It is in the shorter effusions, however, that the power of this author is best displayed; and our favourite little poem in the volume is the subjoined. Whoever the writer may be, he *seems* to deserve to be better known to the public, and still more esteemed in his own circle.

' On Dreaming of my Mother.

' Stay, gentle shadow of my mother, stay!
 Thy form but seldom comes to bless my sleep.
 Ye faithless slumbers, fleet not thus away,
 And leave my wistful eyes to wake and weep.
 O, I was dreaming of those golden days,
 When, Will my guide, and Pleasure all my aim,
 I rambled wild through childhood's flowery maze,
 And knew of Sorrow scarcely by her name.
 Those scenes are fled; and thou, alas! art fled,
 Light of my heart, and guardian of my youth!
 Then come no more to slumbering fancy's bed,
 To aggravate the pangs of waking truth:
 Or if kind sleep these visions will restore,
 O let me sleep again, and never waken more."

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 11. *The Nature and Genius of the German Language* displayed in a more extended Review of its Grammatical Forms than is to be found in any Grammar extant; and elucidated by Quotations from the best Writers. By D. Boileau. 8vo. pp. 424. 12s. Boards. Boosey and Sons. 1820.

This essay may be considered as an attempt to write a philosophic grammar of the German language. It does not occupy the reader with the petty details and exceptions which a young learner

is required to get by heart, but directs his attention to the leading features, delicate resources, and peculiar mechanism of a dialect which has become the most comprehensive treasury of literature among all the tongues of the earth. Stationed in the centre of Europe, the German authors import from and export to all the surrounding nations their respective and peculiar productions; and hence Germany is the country in which the average will of Europe is first ascertained, and in which may first be detected the necessary eventual operation and effect of literary speculation. These considerations render the language important to every statesman, independently of its value as an emblem, instrument, and standard of the national civilization. Mr. Boileau observes:

‘ In *Klopstock* it is grave and solemn; in *Wieland*, sprightly and playful; in *Goethe*, impassionate and dignified; in *Schiller*, nervous and elegant; in *Bürger*, tender and picturesque; in *Herder*, soft and persuasive; in *Lessing*, impressive and convincing; and in *Voss*, it combines the natural graces of Homer with the pure and melodious diction of Virgil. Its flexibility is such that it accommodates itself with ease to any kind of writing. Its treasures are inexhaustible; it already counts above one hundred thousand words; but its radicals are within the reach of the least retentive memory. The German compound words are all formed out of these well-known roots of the language, without the interference of any other idiom; they are formed according to familiar analogies, and instantly become perfectly intelligible to the meanest capacity. It is this circumstance which raises the German so far above the English and the French languages, whose compound and derivative words are sometimes framed with radicals existing in the language, and sometimes with particles and nouns, or verbs, derived either from the Greek or from the Latin; so that their compound terms have the appearance of as many distinct original words, and convey no meaning to the mind of those who are unacquainted with the languages from which they are borrowed, but after they have been explained. They are, therefore, as difficult to be understood and remembered as if they were radical words. An Englishman knows immediately, from the composition of the word, that the *Playhouse* must mean the hall or building where plays are performed; but he cannot attach any idea to the word *Mansion-house*, because he is not acquainted with the Latin verb, *manere*. It is only after he has been informed that it is the dwelling-house for the chief magistrate of the city, that he retains this denomination as an original one. The terms, *Pocket-book*, *Poor-house*, *Day-light*, present a distinct compound idea to every, the most ignorant Englishman: but the words, *Suicide*, a *Dentist*, an *Architect*, are to the unlettered simple denominations, of which they learn the meaning, but which recall no other idea. The German words, *Selbstmord*, *Zahnarzt*, *Baumeister*, are as intelligible to children as *Poor-house*, *Pocket-book*, and *Day-light*, are in English. They are known as soon as pronounced. And when the compound words, derived from foreign languages, are less frequently used than the terms, *Mansion-house*, *Suicide*, *Dentist*, *Architect*,

Architect, it may be said that they convey no meaning whatever to the unlettered. *Philanthropist*, *Misanthrope*, *Anthropophage*, are certainly unintelligible to the vulgar, whilst the most illiterate German knows the meaning of *Menschenfreund*, *Menschenhasser*, *Menschenfresser*.

A verbal translation occurs in this introductory discourse of a soliloquy of Queen Elizabeth, from Schiller's *Mary Stuart*; and of the following pleasing quatrain from Goethe, transplanted into a poem by Lord Byron:

Know'st thou the land in which the citron blows,
Through its dark leaves the golden orange glows;
Where a soft wind the azure heaven bestows,
The myrtle still and high the laurel grows?

The book is arranged somewhat too much like a grammar. The first chapter treats of the article, which is a form of demonstrative pronoun not worth a separate section in a philosophic theory of language; and the second treats of the declensions, and awards to Dr. Noehden's grammar the praise of superior convenience and utility. Klopstock, Adelung, Wendeborn, and others, are criticized and corrected. An excellent table of the German declensions is given, which are here classed under eight distinct formulæ: Fischer makes ten.

Chap. iii. examines the gender of nouns. We lately noticed a list of German substantives, (vol. xcii. p. 442.) to which this designation is attached. In general, the allotment of gender is very capricious in German; words that denote females being sometimes neuter, as *das Weib*, *das Frauenzimmer*, *das Mädchen*, *das Weibsbild*. Some words have two genders, as *der See*, and *die See*, *der Quell*, and *die Quelle*. Even words that denote males are sometimes feminine, and sometimes neuter; as *das Mannsbild*, *die Mannsperson*: — to say nothing of the multiplicity of objects necessarily neuter, which are expressed by masculine and feminine words. — In the fourth chapter, the author discusses the diminutives, and elegant passages are quoted from the poets to exemplify the rules. A fifth considers adjectives and participles: a sixth, the personal and possessive pronouns; and in this section is introduced an entire ballad of Schiller, intitled the Diver.

The pronouns demonstrative, relative, and interrogative, are next analyzed, and their peculiar employments indicated. A chapter then follows on miscellaneous pronouns, by which new designation are introduced *Man*, one; *Jemand*, some one; *Mancher*, many a one; *Viele*, many; *Einige*, some; *Jeder*, every; *Solcher*, such; *Alle*, all; *Gantz*, whole, and some others. The numerals might be ranked in this class. Chap. ix. dissects the conjugation of verbs; and the tenth is allotted to the auxiliaries: in which last section, Schlegel's translation of Hamlet's soliloquy is inserted. The eleventh and twelfth chapters discuss active, passive, and neuter verbs. The Germans have what may be called a neuter conjugation: thus *verderben*, to spoil, has *verdarb* in the past tense neuter, and *verderbete* in the past tense active. Of this curious analogy

analogy we have traces in our own language: but, unluckily, English grammars have seldom been undertaken by persons conversant with the cognate northern dialects, and these analogies, for want of record, become obsolete. The Germans form with distinct auxiliaries the passive voices of active and of neuter verbs: *Er ist gelehrt*, doctus est; *er wird gelehrt*, docetur: *Er ist geliebt*, amatus est; *er wird geliebt*, amatur.

On reflective and impersonal verbs, which abound in the language, curious remarks occur in the thirteenth chapter. A catalogue of irregular verbs, by no means complete, is contained in the fourteenth; and compound verbs are examined in the fifteenth. Analogies peculiar to the German are numerous in this department; such is the use of the syllable *er*. *Laufen*, to run; *Erlaufen*, to win by running; *Reiten*, to ride; *Erreiten*, to obtain by riding; *Springen*, to leap; *Erspringen*, to reach by leaping; &c.

Separable compound verbs next form the topic of a long, heavy, useful, comprehensive, and instructive section. The verb *siessen* generates 58 compounds, the verb *reiten* 48, and the verb *springen* 57. Adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, occupy the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth chapters; and the work concludes with a chapter on the German construction. The author despairs of reducing it to fixed rules: but a good section on the subject will be found in Junker's French and German Grammar, which reveals many of its secret laws.

On the whole, this book is well adapted for its purpose: it will contribute to direct the attention of the German student to the hidden beauties and latent resources of the language; and it includes a copious anthology of select passages from the various classical writers, which will delight by their beauty, and invite to a more diffusive examination of the works whence they are derived. Prose has perhaps not yet attained in Germany the highest perfection of which it is capable; nor, indeed, can this be expected to precede the foundation of institutions which favour the culture of extemporaneous oratory. The involved parenthetical sentences of Wieland may resemble those of Cicero, and may possess a number agreeable to the ear: but the suspension of meaning is delayed too long for the convenience of oral delivery, and a style more abrupt is requisite for the rapid communication of thought. Passages occur in Lessing and Goethe, which demonstrate the practicability of clear, precise, picturesque, and impassioned prose in German: but, in general, the prose-writers afford few specimens of excellence in their art. Gesner betrays the want of variety which characterizes French writing; Mendelssohn has the simplicity but the insipidity of native feebleness; Müller is obscure, quaint, and affected; and the other prosaists here quoted as models have only the negative merit of avoiding obvious faults. Prose, however, is in all languages of slower growth than poetry; though it unfolds less enduring and less pompous blossoms of display.

MEDICINE.

Art. 12. *An Inquiry into the Influence of Situation on Pulmonary Consumption, and on the Duration of Life*; illustrated by Statistical

tical Reports. By John G. Mansford, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons. 8vo. pp. 135. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The objects contemplated in the present publication are of the most important nature, and demand, as they have long received, a large share of the public attention. In the first part of this small work, Mr. Mansford considers pulmonary phthisis, with the view of discovering the situations which appear to possess the greatest power in preventing its use and retarding its progress. The facts adduced by Dr. Wells and subsequent writers have rendered it sufficiently probable, if they have not proved, that low situations, subject to damp and fogs, are unfavourable to the production of pulmonary phthisis: but whether this is to be ascribed to the milder and less irritating qualities of the atmosphere, or to the prevalence of intermittent fevers, which by causing other visceral diseases may procure a comparative immunity for the organs of respiration, we shall not now stay to discuss. Mr. M., on the other hand, is disposed to attribute the salubrity of low situations, with regard to consumption, to the single circumstance of the increased pressure of the atmosphere. That sudden changes in the pressure to which the human body is subjected, — as from ascending in balloons or descending by diving-bells into the depths of the ocean, — produce powerful effects on the respiratory organs, more especially when in a weakened state, we cannot doubt: but that the atmospheric pressure, to which we have been exposed from the first moment of our existence, should prove the cause of disease, seems altogether inconceivable: for we must recollect that our frames have been formed, from their first germ to their final evolution, under this rate of pressure; and that all their powers and actions have been fashioned in proportion to its degree. In support of his opinion, Mr. M. has compiled tables of the proportion of deaths from pulmonary consumption to the whole number of inhabitants, in different towns in the south-west of England: but without proving to our satisfaction that this proportion bears a marked and regular ratio to the lowness of their level above the sea. Axbridge is, of all the places noted by the author, that which enjoys the greatest immunity from pulmonary phthisis: but other towns are stated in the tables which have the same, and one even having a smaller, elevation above the ocean, in which a greater proportion of deaths from this disease is annually observed. Mr. M.'s hypothesis meets with another difficulty, in the frequent occurrence of this destructive malady in some maritime situations: but for this he endeavours to account by supposing the existence of certain injurious saline ingredients in the sea-air. Of such ingredients, however, we have no evidence; while it is in our opinion sufficiently established that many cases of pulmonary phthisis agree admirably with exposure to the sea-breeze; and a sea-voyage, when saline impregnations, supposing that they exist in the atmosphere, must abound, has often proved eminently beneficial in consumptive cases.

Our statistical knowledge, on the subject of this disease, does not appear

appear to be sufficiently matured to enable us to form any thing like a probable hypothesis of the effects of mere situation on its production and progress. What a multitude of diseases, differing in their nature, are confounded together under this one title of consumption; and how vague and imperfect are those statements of travellers, from which speculative physicians have drawn the most positive conclusions! Thus Mr. Mansford has conceded to Denmark an almost total immunity from pulmonary phthisis, on the testimony of Lord Molesworth; who says, "few or none of the Danes are troubled with coughs, catarrhs, consumptions, or such like diseases of the lungs." Sweden, Lapland, and Russia, are elevated by Mr. M. to a similar pre-eminence; and Egypt and Bengal are considered by him as of all countries the most exempted from this destructive malady. We are convinced, however, that they are indebted for this high character to our ignorance; and that the scrupulous accuracy of investigation, which has been used with reference to this subject in Portugal, Italy, and Madeira, would prove that those countries do not enjoy the singularly happy exemption which Mr. M. has supposed. It appears now to be an ascertained fact that pulmonary consumption is a disease of almost universal prevalence, except in very warm climates; where the liver is the *viscus* which is most obnoxious to morbid alterations: but it is in our opinion established by a wide induction of facts, that a mild and genial temperature, subject only to slight and gradual variations, is the most likely to prevent the development of this disease in those who are already predisposed to it, and to retard its fatal progress when already formed. With that partiality which we all feel for the place of our residence, Mr. M. recommends Frome as a proper situation for the phthisical invalid: but our own recollections of that clothing town, and the proportion of deaths from this disease which it exhibits in Mr. M.'s tables, lead us to consider it as decidedly inferior in this respect to many beautiful villages and small towns in the same district of England.

The second part of this treatise is dedicated to the consideration of the effects of elevated sites on the duration of human life; and here the author appears as much inclined to believe that a lofty situation is favourable to long life, as in the former part of his work he was disposed to deem it injurious by the production of pulmonary consumption. The mode in which he has discussed this subject affords little evidence of multiplied or deep research, or of much ingenuity in the conduct of his argument. It appears to us that an accurate survey of the comparative duration of human life, over the whole globe, will shew that it is most prolonged where temperance and healthful exercise most abound; where food is supplied by nature with a munificent hand; and where a free air, and a mild climate, foster the bodily frame and aid the play of its vital functions. Such, we believe, are the advantages enjoyed by the inhabitants of the elevated plains of Mexico, where so many instances of remarkably prolonged and vigorous existence have been found; — a country destined by nature to be the scene of happiness, — and now, we earnestly trust, at length released from the rapacious cruelty of foreign dominion.

Art. 13. *Researches into the Nature and Causes of Epilepsy*, as connected with the Physiology of Animal Life and Muscular Motion; with Cases illustrative of a new and successful Method of Treatment. By John G. Mansford, &c. 8vo. pp. 160. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

This work, like the preceding, consists of two parts. In the first, the author endeavours to establish certain opinions regarding life, the nature of the supposed nervous fluid, and muscular action, for the purpose of forming a theory of epilepsy. In the second, he considers the nature and cure of that disease, and details nine cases, for the purpose of illustrating its treatment by means of galvanism. The preliminary discussions are by no means devoid of ingenuity, but they have not carried conviction to our minds; nor do we see that the establishment of the theory of Mr. Mansford, in this disease, is necessary to prove the propriety of the practice which it is his object to recommend. Life, in his opinion, is the union of the immaterial principle, or soul, with the corporeal frame. No doubt, the life of man is co-existent with the continuance of this union, and terminates at its dissolution: but it does not therefore follow that these two shall be one and the same. As we must admit the existence of life in the brute creation, we must grant that life does not necessarily imply an immaterial and imperishable principle. The nervous fluid is considered by Mr. M. as synonymous with the electric or galvanic; and the motions of the body, according to his conception, are performed by the transmission of this fluid through the nerves to the muscles which are to be put in motion. The brain he seems to assimilate to a grand electrical battery, over which the will in the healthy state of the body exerts a continual and powerful controul; sending forth streams of electricity through the nerves, or withholding this influence according to the wants of the system, and the actions which are to be performed. The nerves and the muscles he conceives to be in different states of electricity, and the contractions of the heart to arise from the opposite electrical states of the venous and arterial blood. In what way he conceives that their different states of electricity are preserved till the proper moment for the restoration of an equilibrium arrives, we cannot understand, when we consider the close vicinity of the large veins and arteries throughout every part of the body. The error of this theory, which is by no means novel, seems to consist in confounding the phenomena of life with those of mere irritability.

Mr. M. has stated (p. 39.) that the voluntary muscles, when separated from the body, obey no stimulus but that of electricity. He will find, however, on making the experiment, that the gastrocnemius muscle of an amputated limb will be thrown distinctly into contraction by puncturing it with a sharp instrument. The application of acids, also, as Mr. M. admits, produces exactly the same effects, although in different degrees. He endeavours, however, to get rid of the difficulty by advancing the gratuitous assumption that, during the chemical action of acids on the animal fibre, an evolution of galvanism takes place; and in speaking of oxygen-

oxygenated muriatic acid, he talks of its parting with its oxygen; —an opinion which has now few or no supporters.

Mr. M. thus develops his theory of epilepsy :

‘ The voluntary motions of the body may be defined to be the result of a subtile and mobile matter, answering in its nature and properties to the electric fluid, transmitted by an act of the will from the brain to the muscles. In a state of health, the principle of life is fully competent to regulate the formation and the retention or discharge of this substance. But if it be weakened by disease, so that it may be unable to control that portion with which the brain is already charged, or to prevent its increase, or transmit it to the distant parts, the balance between its formation and expenditure being destroyed, an accumulation must happen ; which arriving at its maximum, the point beyond which the brain cannot be charged without injury to its structure or functions, or perhaps without endangering life itself — the vital principle being absolutely overwhelmed and losing its command, the motive powers of the system become for a time obedient to those laws which would govern them in any other situation, and fly from the points in redundancy to those in deficiency ; when the vital principle, being freed from the load which threatened its existence, resumes its seat and its power.

‘ This may be considered as a brief explanation of the phenomena of the epileptic paroxysm ; rendered still more probable by its general periodical character when existing in its pure idiopathic form.

‘ Conformably to these general principles, there may be said to be two states of the brain giving rise to epilepsy. The first, where its organization is not visibly altered, but certain causes inexplicable in their operation have rendered it incapable of bearing the excitement of the electric stimulus. The second, where there is an absolute change of structure or condition in this organ, giving rise to a morbid accumulation of the nervous fluid, or diminishing its capacity for the natural proportion.’

The history of epilepsy, and the known laws of electricity, offer so many difficulties to the establishment of this theory, that we decline to enter farther into the discussion of the subject.

Having expressed his conviction that the proximate cause of epilepsy is ‘ an accumulation of the electric matter in the brain, excessive with respect to its existing capacity,’ (p. 76.) the author proceeds to propose for the cure of this disease the gentle but continued action of galvanism. For this purpose, he forms two small blister-issues, one situated high up on the back of the neck, close to the hair, and the other on the inside of the knee, a little beneath the joint. To the former he applies a small silver-plate, with a morsel of moistened sponge interposed ; and to the latter a similar plate of zinc, with a corresponding piece of muscular flesh, to render the galvanic action more mild and uniform. The silver and zinc plates he connects by means of three or four very slender and well annealed copper-wires, which are secured in apposition to the body by means of circular straps in different parts of their course,

course. The issues require to be dressed once daily, and the zinc-plate to be cleared at the same time from the oxyd which uniformly collects on its surface. The upper issue, as we might expect, usually shews a strong disposition to heal, while the lower is apt to become irritable and to spread. In this way, we have no doubt, a considerable local irritation will be kept up; which, together with the discharges, may contribute materially in cases of epilepsy to the relief of the head; without exactly supposing that the apparatus acts by drawing off the galvanic fluid from the brain. We believe, indeed, that the galvanic matter, which is here made to act on the frame, is wholly evolved by the action of the two metals on the animal fluids with which they are in contact; and that the body of a person subjected to this apparatus is not relieved from an accumulation of galvanism, but on the contrary is more fully charged with that powerful matter in a state of activity.

Mr. M. is sufficiently partial to his new views of the treatment of epilepsy, but is by no means so bigoted as to rest entirely on the efficacy of galvanism in this disease. Blood-letting and aperient medicines have their full share of his good opinion, and are freely employed in his practice. The benefits of dry cupping are also stated; and much good sense is shewn in the strong manner in which the writer inculcates the necessity of temperance in every sense of the word, to ensure the success of any mode of treatment. Nine cases of epilepsy, more or less regular in its type, are given, to illustrate the efficacy of the treatment by galvanism; of which five were cured, and the remaining four proved unsuccessful. In the histories of these cases, we have several instances of severe attacks while the galvanic apparatus was actually applied to the bodies of the patients; and many very striking proofs of the great benefits to be derived in this disease from depletion, both by the lancet and by cathartics.

We shall be most happy to learn that the galvanic treatment of epilepsy has proved as successful in other hands as in those of Mr. M.: but we very much fear, when we consider the hitherto intractable nature of this disease, that the sanguine anticipations of this gentleman will be disappointed. Of his general views of the mode of cure in epilepsy, however, we highly approve. We are acquainted with several instances in which epilepsy has been removed by the help of issues; and hence we are led to consider them as the principal means by which cures have been effected in the cases before us. Yet it is possible that the irritation of galvanism, applied to issues, may have a peculiarly powerful efficacy in relieving the head: or it may be that the action of this subtile matter serves to impart a degree of tone and vigour to the viscera of the trunk, and more particularly to those of the abdomen, which will remove the cause of the epileptic paroxysm; for we all know the effects of a deranged state of the bowels in aggravating this melancholy disease, and even in some cases giving rise to it.

HISTORY, &c.

- Art. 14. *An Historical Account of Cumner*; with some Particulars of the Traditions respecting the Death of the Countess of Leicester,

Leicester, &c. &c. By Hugh Usher Tighe, Esq. of Corpus Christi College, Oxford. Crown 8vo. 5s. 6d. sewed. Whiteley. 1821.

To illustrate the admirable romance of *Kenilworth*, Mr. T. has here collected all the particulars which, as he says, his limited time has allowed, from Ashmole's *Antiquities of Berkshire*, Anthony Wood's MSS., the *Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica*, &c.

In his introduction, Mr. T. observes ; With regard to 'one circumstance, which makes a prominent figure in "*Kenilworth*," there is no reason to suppose that an inn, designated "*The Black Bear*," flourished in Cumner in the reign of Queen Elizabeth ; but the spirit of romance has penetrated that retired spot ; the pride of reputed ancestral renown, and the solicitations of some romantic members of this University, have triumphed, and the sign of "*The Black Bear*" has been recently affixed to the public-house in the village, with the name of "*Giles Gosling*" inscribed beneath it.'

With regard to Cumner itself, we are told ; 'Cumner, situated in Berkshire, in the hundred of Hormer, and deanery of Abingdon, is built on the brow of a hill, commanding a very extensive view over the counties of Oxford and Gloucester. The parish extends about five miles in length, four in breadth, and contains many little tributary hamlets, of three, four, or five houses each. * The number of houses in the village of Cumner, and its dependent hamlets, amounts to about a hundred, and the inhabitants of the whole parish do not exceed five hundred and fifty.'

'The ancient mansion-house of Cumner Place adjoined the west end of the church-yard. A heap of stones, and the foundations, now scarcely discernible, are all that remain of that venerable structure, where monks alternately prayed and feasted, and where beauty mourned the alienated affections of a faithless husband, and suffered a violent death !'—

'This venerable monastic structure, having been long untenanted, was repaired about a century ago, for the reception of a farmer and his family. Report asserts that a journeyman-carpenter, who was at that time employed by his master to take down some of the buildings, discovered a small trunk filled with gold coins, concealed in a chamber adjoining the long gallery. He left the neighbourhood of Cumner soon afterwards. About eleven years ago, the house again falling into a dilapidated state, it was taken down by the present owner, the Earl of Abingdon, and the site of Cumner Place is all that now remains of the favoured retreat of the powerful ecclesiastics of Abingdon. From inhabitants of the place, who remember the edifice standing, and from several old authorities, I have collected the following description of it :

'This ancient structure, which was of considerable extent, was built round a court or quadrangle of about seventy-two feet in length, and fifty in breadth. The principal entrance was on the north side, under an archway, with rooms on either side of it ;

* *Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica*. Vol. IV.

above these, "the long gallery" extended the whole length of that side of the building. At the west end of this apartment, the flight of stone stairs, at the bottom of which the body of the unfortunate Lady Leicester was said to have been found, led down to the quadrangle, and great hall of the edifice, which was at right angles to the long gallery. Over a room beyond the hall was the apartment celebrated by the name of "Lady Dudley's Chamber;" and indeed so great an interest had the fate of that hapless lady excited, that the whole place is still generally called at Cumner "Dudley Castle." On the south side were some apartments which bore traces of superior magnificence, but which were in a state of dilapidation, when this seat of the wealthy abbots became the residence of the industrious farmer.

Ashmole's account of the foul assassination of Lady Leicester seems to have been followed by the author of "Kenilworth:" but the inscription on the monument of Anthony Forster, in the church at Cumner, is much at variance with the vile character attributed to him, and proves (says Mr. Tighe) 'how little reliance is to be placed on monumental panegyrics.' The tomb itself is a very handsome edifice, as it is represented in the annexed engraving. We have also a neat view of Cumner Place, as it appeared before it was taken down in 1810; and altogether this neat little publication will be welcomed by many of the multitudinous readers of "Kenilworth."

Art. 15. *Picture of Margate, and its Vicinity.* By W. C. Oulton, Esq., Author of the Traveller's Guide, &c. &c. Illustrated with a Map and Twenty Views, engraved by J. J. Shury, from Drawings by Capt. G. Varlo, R.M. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

Some pains seem to have been taken to render this compilation a good guide to the well-known 'Margate and its vicinity:' but we cannot undertake to decide on the validity, though we can unhesitatingly censure the want of modesty, of the high claims which the author advances for it. 'Neither expence nor exertion,' we are told, 'has been spared for the purpose of rendering the present superior to all similar works;—and this picture, it is presumed, will be found an admirable guide to strangers.'—The book, however, is handsomely printed, and the engravings are neatly executed: but in point of drawing many of them are very deficient.

The steam-boats are here said to have now almost entirely superseded the sailing vessels, vulgarly called *Hoys*.

Art. 16. *George the Third, his Court and Family.* 2 Vols. 8vo. 11. 8s. Boards. Colburn and Co. 1821.

These volumes contain a large collection of anecdotes, extracted principally from Dr. King's Memoirs, Lord Melcomb's Diary, Nichols's Anecdotes of Bowyer, Bishop Watson's Life Walpole's Reminiscences, Nichols's Recollections, and Mrs. Delany's Letters; to which last the writer always refers with expressions of particular approbation. To persons not acquainted with those originals, the present work may furnish considerable amusement: but others, to whom the subject is not so novel, will be occasionally much disappointed.

pointed to find old stories dressed up in a new shape, though without the spirit or the point with which they appeared before, for this compilation is essentially courtly; and the author has found it necessary, in order to make some of the writers above mentioned subservient to his purposes, to stretch them on the bed of Procrustes, and discipline them by a little mangling.

We extract the letter of Mr. Adams, addressed to the Secretary of State at Philadelphia, giving an account of his reception by his Majesty as the first American envoy after the independence of the United States had been recognized. It is a very curious document, and the only article of any consequence which we have not seen inserted in some preceding collection of the same cast.

“ At one, on Wednesday, the first of June (says Mr. Adams), the master of the ceremonies called at my house, and went with me to the Secretary of State's office, in Cleveland-row, where the Marquis of Carmarthen received me, and introduced me to Mr. Frazier, his under-secretary, who had been, as his Lordship said, uninterruptedly in that office, through all the changes in administration, for thirty years, having first been appointed by the Earl of Holderness. After a short conversation upon the subject of importing my effects from Holland and France, free of duty, which Mr. Frazier himself introduced, Lord Carmarthen invited me to go with him in his coach to court. When we arrived in the ante-chamber, the master of the ceremonies met me, and attended me, while the Secretary of State went to take the commands of the King. While I stood in this place, where it seems all ministers stand upon such occasions, always attended by the master of the ceremonies, the room very full of ministers of state, bishops, and all other sorts of courtiers, as well as the next room, which is the King's bed-chamber, you may well suppose that I was the focus of all eyes. I was relieved, however, from the embarrassment of it, by the Swedish and Dutch ministers, who came to me, and entertained me with a very agreeable conversation during the whole time. Some other gentlemen, whom I had seen before, came to make their compliments too, until the Marquis of Carmarthen returned, and desired me to go with him to his Majesty. I went with his Lordship through the levee-room into the King's closet—the door was shut, and I was left with his Majesty and the Secretary of State alone. I made the three reverences; one at the door, another about half way, and the third before the presence, according to the usage established at this and all the northern courts of Europe, and then addressed myself to his Majesty in the following words :

“ Sir,—The United States of America have appointed me Minister-plenipotentiary to your Majesty, and have directed me to deliver to your Majesty this letter, which contains the evidence of it. It is in obedience to their express commands, that I have the honour to assure your Majesty of their unanimous disposition and desire to cultivate the most friendly and liberal intercourse between your Majesty's subjects and their citizens, and of their best wishes for your Majesty's health and happiness, and for that of your royal family.

“ The

“The appointment of a minister from the United States to your Majesty’s court will form an epoch in the history of England and America. I think myself more fortunate than all my fellow-citizens, in having the distinguished honour to be the first to stand in your Majesty’s royal presence in a diplomatic character; and I shall esteem myself the happiest of men if I can be instrumental in recommending my country more and more to your Majesty’s royal benevolence, and of restoring an entire esteem, confidence, and affection; or, in better words, ‘the old good nature, and the good old humour,’ between people, who, though separated by an ocean, and under different governments, have the same language, a similar religion, a kindred blood. I beg your Majesty’s permission to add, that although I have sometimes before been intrusted by my country, it was never in my whole life in a manner so agreeable to myself.”

“The King listened to every word I said, with dignity it is true, but with an apparent emotion. Whether it was the nature of the interview, or whether it was my visible agitation, for I felt more than I did or could express, that touched him, I cannot say; but he was much affected, and answered me with more tremour than I had spoken with, and said—

“Sir,—The circumstances of this audience are so extraordinary, the language you have now held is so extremely proper, and the feelings you have discovered so justly adapted to the occasion, that I must say, that I not only receive with pleasure the assurance of the friendly disposition of the United States, but that I am glad the choice has fallen upon you to be their minister. I wish you, Sir, to believe, and that it may be understood in America, that I have done nothing in the late contest but what I thought myself indispensably bound to do, by the duty which I owed to my people. I will be very frank with you. I was the last to conform to the separation; but the separation having been made, and having become inevitable, I have always said, as I say now, that I would be the first to meet the friendship of the United States as an independent power. The moment I see such sentiments and language as yours prevail, and a disposition to give this country the preference, that moment I shall say, let the circumstances of language, religion, and blood, have their natural and full effect.”

“I dare not say that these were the King’s precise words: and it is even possible that I may have in some particular mistaken his meaning; for although his pronunciation is as distinct as I ever heard, he hesitated sometimes between his periods, and between members of the same period. He was, indeed, much affected, and I was not less so, and therefore I cannot be certain that I was so attentive, heard so clearly, and understood so perfectly, as to be confident of all his words or sense; and I think that all which he said to me should at present be kept secret in America, unless his Majesty, or his Secretary of State, should judge proper to report it. This I do say, that the foregoing is his Majesty’s meaning, as I then understood it, and his own words, as nearly as I can recollect them.”

The political remarks scattered through this book are all written according to the principles of German governments; and, if it were not a sort of *scandalum magnatum* to say so, we should conjecture that this compilation has been made by some religious knight of Windsor, born of or wedded to some German dependant on the royal family.—The volumes are illustrated by eighteen portraits of the royal family, which are well executed likenesses.

Art. 17. *Memoirs of his late Majesty, George III.*, written with a special View to the Progress of Religion, Civil and Religious Liberty, Benevolence, and General Knowledge, during the late Reign. By Thomas Williams. 12mo. pp. 276. 5s. 6d. Boards. Simpkin and Marshall.

The particular object of this compilation is fairly set forth in the title-page, and the reader is not to expect a political history of the late reign, but anecdotes illustrative of the personal character and domestic habits of the sovereign: with reference also to their influence on the state of civil and religious liberty, and the progress of knowledge. On this plan, a great number of anecdotes are collected from the different publications which have already appeared, as historical of the period or biographical of the monarch; all tending to produce a favourable picture, though a slight shade is occasionally thrown on the canvas. We meet with little or no novelty: but the volume is altogether interesting as a compendium; and, with the restricted application to which it is confessedly adapted, it may be acceptable to those who do not require more copious information.

A portrait of the late King is prefixed, taken during his declining years; when, we should think, neither good taste nor good feelings would prompt a wish for such a delineation. At least, we contemplate the *written* with much greater pleasure than the *engraved* portrait here presented to us.

Art. 18. *Coronation Ceremonies and Customs*, relative to Barons of the Cinque Ports, as Supporters of the Canopy. By T. Mantell, Esq. F. A. S. and F. L. S. 4to. pp. 55. Doyer.

Mr. Mantell, it appears, is one of the Cinque Port Barons, and has therefore almost officially undertaken this compilation of the laws and customs under which they act, especially with reference to the bearing of a canopy over his Majesty at his coronation. The particulars relative to their claim and admission to this honour, at the coronation of the late King, are fully given; and we need scarcely observe that they were in like manner admitted to this service at the grand ceremony now just performed. According to the news-papers, however, they did not execute their office in the most exact and satisfactory manner: but whether, in consequence, they were debarred from having a good dinner provided for them, we know not: though we learn from the publication before us that a failure to supply them with this repast in 1761 was the cause of much complaint and remonstrance. Mr. M.'s compilation will doubtless be acceptable to all who are interested in the subject of it.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1821.

ART. I. *The History of British India.* By James Mill, Esq.
First Edition, in 4to. 6l. 6s. Boards. Second Edition, 6 Vols.
8vo. 3l. 12s. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

SUCCESSFULLY to write history is allowed by all persons to be a task of great difficulty, though by many this fact is admitted without any distinct conception of the objects in which that difficulty consists. A number of readers judge of an historical composition as they view an advocate's address to a jury; imagining the merit to reside chiefly in the style, and in a certain happy art of putting the leading points;—an art which, in their opinion, is the gift of nature, the inherent characteristic of one man and not of another. As the work before us is the greatest historical labour that has appeared since the days of Gibbon, it may not be amiss to take the present opportunity of offering a few remarks on the requisites for this elevated class of writing; following them up by some observations applicable to the case of India, which will naturally lead us to a discussion of the merits of Mr. Mill's publication.

The first part of an historian's task is to discover and collect authorities both in print and in MS.; the number and diversity of which can be comprehended by those only who, in the performance of such a duty, have ransacked great libraries, or dissected the mass of evidence which is accumulated in public records. In this labour, a literary man is as yet but feebly aided by classed catalogues or other bibliographical indices; and no public library, whether the British Museum, the Bodleian, or the far more extensive *Bibliothèque du Roi* at Paris, contains above half the books given to the world on any topic of general interest.—After this preliminary survey begins the toil of research and comparison; we mean the task of studying the accounts derived from every reputable quarter, analyzing their substance, reconciling (if possible) their discrepancies, and, finally, arriving at a conclusion on clear and convincing grounds. This is the department that occupies year after year of the historian's time, and which
REV. AUGUST, 1821. Z consumes

consumes the more in proportion as his mind is inquisitive, pains-taking, and scrupulous in giving to the public nothing but what it has itself ascertained and does itself fully believe. That rapidity in research, and that perspicuity in decision, which by some good-natured persons are so liberally attributed to favourite writers, and are so complacently assumed by some authors to themselves, are here of no avail: the *improbable labor* can alone ensure success. If we turn, for example, to a late historical work, — Coxe's Life of Marlborough, — and refer to the account of a general engagement, such as Blenheim, we shall find that to describe the previous movements, the early attacks, the doubtful aspect of the conflict, the change or modification of plan by the commanders, and, finally, the causes of the issue, is a task of great nicety; the writer unavoidably balancing between opposite or, at least, varying assertions, — relinquishing ideas at first plausibly supported, — adopting those that rest on the stronger ground, — weighing evidence first in detail and afterward *en masse*, — and finally attaining a very distinct and satisfactory conception of the whole, but not without several days of continued inquiry and reflection. If we apply the same scrutinizing process to diplomatic transaction, — to the commencement, the early aspect, the subsequent change, and the issue, of a prolonged negotiation, — or to the analysis of a debate in a public assembly, — or to the discussions necessary in council before the adoption of a great national measure, — we shall find that, however brief may be the report of the result which is made by the historian, his duty has necessarily involved a long and complex process.

Such are the inquiries requisite for the narrative part of history: but a farther and a higher task remains; we mean that of analyzing the state of society, the institutions of government, and the laws, religion, and manners of a people. This, which is the philosophy of history, hitherto treated by some writers only in occasional paragraphs, and by others in additional chapters, forms a large and prominent part of the work under review, and has led the author into an unusual extent of research. Investigations of this nature, sufficiently difficult when treating of a nation in a state that is familiar to a writer, become doubly intricate when they relate to a people in an altogether different stage of social progress. Dr. Robertson, who was certainly not disposed to exceed in extent of research, felt the necessity of devoting several years to reading and reflecting on the state of uncivilized nations, before he undertook a description of the American tribes. A still wider field was presented by India; a country equal to the half of Europe

Europe in amount of population and diversity of race, with the farther disadvantage of great confusion in the requisite documents.

'I felt,' says Mr. Mill, 'that the knowlege requisite for attaining an adequate acquaintance with India was collected no where; it was scattered in a variety of repositories sometimes alone, more often mixed up with other subjects: statements the result of actual observation were indiscriminately blended with others which were mere matter of opinion. The number of books to be consulted exceeded all idea; some were books of travels, others books of history; some the work of European antiquaries and philologists; others translations from the writings of the natives; and a formidable mass consisted of the evidence and reports of parliamentary committees appointed to inquire into India affairs. No single writer had as yet attempted to explore this heterogeneous assemblage; to separate the useful from the insignificant, the true from the false. Nothing consequently is more rare than to meet with a man acquainted in any considerable degree with India or its affairs; such a man, who has not been forced to acquire his knowlege by the office he has filled, is hardly ever to be found.'

Under these circumstances, it is no matter of surprize that the time required for the présent volumes should, as in the case of Gibbon, have been "ten years of health, of labour, and of perseverance."

Is it necessary that the writer of a history of India should have passed a portion of his life in that country? This question would be answered in the affirmative by almost all who have not entered into an analysis of the duties of an historical writer, and learned from them that the man best adapted to write history is he who is most qualified to deal with evidence. The mental habits formed by personal observation, and by the acquisition of foreign languages, are altogether different from the powers of combining, discriminating, classifying, and judging, which are exerted in extracting the precious ore from a mine of rude historical materials. Whenever the latter are collected in sufficient quantity, a literary man may attain more knowlege in his closet in one year than he will acquire by the local use of his eyes and ears in ten. Tacitus wrote an exquisite account of the manners of the Germans without having lived among them; and Dr. Robertson was successful in the history of Charles V. without visiting either Germany or Spain. With respect to the country in question, the languages of Europe now contain a stock of information sufficient to enable a writer to ascertain the most important points in Indian affairs; and no exception is made against the selection of an India director, a president of the Board of Controul, or a Governor-general, because he has never visited the East. By repairing

thither,

thither, and living in the country, a writer may treasure up the facts presented to his senses, — or discuss, in conversation with the natives, certain events not yet committed to writing: but the means of personal observation are in every man very limited; and it is only by combining the observations of a number, that a knowledge of any extensive subject can be acquired. Moreover, how much more vivid is our conception of an object presented to our view, than of one which we know only by description; and how great, therefore, is the hazard lest the impression received by the senses should exert an undue influence in particular points, and thus impair our conception of the whole. Again, the cursory observation, so likely to be indulged in the case of a personal survey, is far more adapted to confirm than to dispel previous prepossession: but he who, without having been individually in India, undertakes to digest the materials of Indian history, is placed with regard to written authorities in the situation of a judge with respect to a number of witnesses.

The result of all these arguments is that, though it be to a certain degree desirable to live among the people whom we describe, the disadvantage of not having done this is much smaller than it at first appears; and that, limited as are the lifetime and the mental powers of a man, the most effectual use of them, in a literary sense, is made in his own closet.

We shall now endeavour to convey, as far as our limits admit, some idea of the contents of this very long work; beginning with an abstract of the chapters relative to the early history of our East India Company, and to the state of civilization among the inhabitants of Hindustan.

First Voyages of the English to India, towards the Close of the Sixteenth Century: first Charter granted in 1600: the Association at first merely a regulated Company, formed into a Joint-stock Company in 1612: Second Joint-stock Subscription in 1617: a further Joint-stock Subscription in 1632: Coalition of the latter with the Merchant-Adventurers in 1657. A new and rival Company in 1698: Union of the Two Companies in 1702: their definitive Union in 1708. Early Settlements of the English in India: the Chief Presidency at Surat till 1685, afterwards at Bombay. At Madras a Presidency appointed in 1654: in Bengal first Privileges obtained in 1652: a Factory established in 1675; received the Title of Presidency in 1707: obtained farther Privileges from the Mogul Court in 1717.

The Hindus: their Chronology: Distribution into Castes: Form of Government: Laws: Taxes: Religion: Manners; the Arts: Literature: General View of their State of Civilization.

The Mahomedan Invaders of Hindustan; under the Ghaznevide Dynasty: under the two Gaurian Dynasties; under the Mogul Dynasty.

Dynasty. Comparative Civilization of the Hindus and the Mahomedans.

Early History of Hindustan. — We know not any stronger presumption of the illiterate character of the antient Hindus than their want of historical records; for it would be absurd to dwell seriously on the pretended reigns of mighty kings, whose empire, according to the Brahmans, embraced not merely the whole of India but the whole world. The country seems to have been, from a very early period, divided into a number of petty states, habitually engaged in making war and depredations on each other, and altogether incapable of a vigorous resistance to invaders. The frontier on the long line of mountains (the Himālā), extending from N. W. to S. E., appears scarcely ever to have been penetrated, owing partly to the formidable nature of the barrier, and partly to the poverty and scanty population of the adjoining nations. A defence also is afforded on the eastern side of India, along the lower part of the course of the Indus, by the arid tracts to the right of that river; so that the attacks on India by land have almost all taken place in one quarter, its north-west frontier. It was there that the Persians and perhaps their Assyrian predecessors made their invasion, and there also took place the march of Alexander. The extent of country in India, subject to the Persian empire in its day of splendour, is not accurately ascertained: but, as the revenue arising from it was considerably greater than that of any of the other satrapies or provinces, it seems not improbable that it reached as far as Delhi. Alexander's march was considerably short of that city, having ended on the banks of the Setlege or Beyah, called by the Greeks Hyphasis, and distant about three hundred miles from the north-west limit of India.

Seleucus, the successor of Alexander in Upper Asia, made some attempts to extend the acquisitions of his master in India. At a subsequent date, Bactria, the country to the east of Media and Persia, was constituted a separate kingdom, and the north-west portion of India seems to have formed a part of it. In the seventh century of the Christian æra, the successors of Mohammed invaded Persia, and, in their rapid conquests, acquired the sovereignty of Bactria, with its appendant provinces. Three centuries afterward was founded the dynasty of the Ghaznevīdes, so called from Ghazna, the Persian name of the province of Candahar, the ruler of which was the first who carried the Mohammedan power beyond the part of India that was subject to the Persians; proceeding to the southward of Delhi, and occupying Merat, Muttra, Agra, and other towns familiar to the readers

of Lord Lake's military achievements in 1803-4. His successors continued to govern until 1184; when the warlike inhabitants of the mountains of Gaur in the east of Persia, known in India by the name of Afghans, transferred the sceptre from the house of Ghazna to that of Gaur, one of whose first exploits was the invasion of the Deccan or central part of India. At the close of the fourteenth century, a more memorable event occurred, viz. the invasion of the north of India by Timur, or Tamerlane, who defeated the opposing army near Delhi, took that capital, and returned soon afterward to Persia. — The third dynasty of the Mohammedans in India, called the Mogul dynasty, commenced in 1525, and several of the reigns, particularly that of Aurungzebe, (from 1658 to 1707,) were very remarkable: but it must suffice to say that, under this dynasty, the sway of the Mohammedans was extended throughout all India, except the south; and that it was from the court of Delhi that our first settlers on the coast obtained permission to trade.

The Mahrattas became a power in the middle of the seventeenth century. Their first leader was an active chieftain called Sevaye, and their original country was the mountainous region stretching from the borders of the Guzerat to Goa; so that, though Hindus, they were less feeble and inefficient than their countrymen of the plains. Under these and other assailants, or rather under its own inherent weakness, the power of the Mogul dynasty disappeared about the year 1760; Shah-Aulum II., though invested with the title of Emperor, having never been possessed of authority, and having, when released in 1803 from the state of captivity under which he was held by Scindiah, ended his days as a pensioner of our East India Company.

Comparison of the Persians and the Hindus. — The Mohammedan invaders of Hindustan were principally natives of the east of Persia, viz. Bactria, Transoxiana, and the contiguous provinces; and, though by no means intitled to be termed civilized, they were much less backward than the Hindus, being exempt from the institution of caste, that most effectual barrier to the improvement of mankind. They had long been acquainted with the art of writing; their sovereigns understood the plan of distributing the functions of government among fixed officers; and the institutes of the celebrated Timur discover, in the appointment of judges, magistrates, and ecclesiastical dignitaries, as well as in the selection of ministers, secretaries, and other public servants, views indicative of considerable advancement in the art of governing. In religion, in manners, in the useful arts, and in literature, the
Moham-

Mohammedans possessed an evident superiority; and the Hindus were doubtless gainers by the incorporation of this northern race, although the less smooth and winning manners of the Mohammedan prevent him from being acceptable to an English master.

On the Civilization of the Hindus. — The disquisition on this subject is wholly contained in the first volume of the present work, and will be read with great interest on account of the novelty of the author's views, the fulness of proof adduced in their support, and the importance of the conclusions; illustrative as they are of the habits and character of so many millions of our species. One part of Mr. M.'s task consisted in detecting the fallacy of the notion of a high state of civilization in India; an idea that has existed in Europe since the days of the Greeks and Romans. In modern times, the first accounts of the East were derived from the Popish missionaries, chiefly Jesuits, who repaired to China as the scene of their apostolic labours. Europe was then poor and little advanced: but the Chinese composed a vast society, and exhibited many though fallacious marks of riches. With India the acquaintance of the Europeans commenced at nearly the same time as with the tribes of America, who were devoid not only of political institutions but of fixed dwellings. The sight of a nation inhabiting cities, cultivating the soil, preserving monuments of antiquity, and displaying the splendour of a great court, suggested to European visitors that they had passed from one extreme of civilization to another: in fact, two centuries ago, in the zenith of the Mogul empire, Hindustan exhibited an air of grandeur and power; and, when farther observation had proved that the Hindus were at the best but half civilized, recourse was had to the saving hypothesis that their present situation was that of degradation consequent on foreign conquest. This idea was conformable to the high pretensions of the Brahmans; who, like some of our fellow-subjects to the west of St. George's Channel, spoke in confident terms of past days of power and magnificence. Unluckily, about half a century ago, when researches into oriental learning became fashionable in England, a distinguished countryman of our own, Sir W. Jones, took up with ardour the theory of a high civilization in the East: but, as no record of events confirms these pretensions, the only sure ground of reasoning is derived from the laws and institutions; which, far from implying a polished state of society, are, as well as the manners and the state of the arts and sciences, altogether inconsistent with it. Had the Hindus ever held a high rank in civilization, we know not any period of calamity that was sufficient to precipitate them

from it, for the conquest of their country by the Moham-medans was by no means subversive of established institutions.

‘ It seems to have been a rash and foolish assimilation of the conquest of Hindustan by the Moguls, to the overwhelming of the Roman empire by the northern nations, that alone would have suggested so gratuitous a supposition, as that of the degradation of the Hindus from an improved to a barbarous state of society by the calamities of conquest. The two cases are totally dissimilar. By the successive inundations of the barbarians, the ancient inhabitants of the Roman provinces were well nigh swept from the face of the earth. Every where they were stript of the possession of the land, and commonly reduced to the state of bondsmen and slaves. The ancient institutions entirely gave way, and were replaced by a set of institutions altogether new. The language of the conquerors in most places entirely supplanted, in all it so much altered the language of the people subdued or exterminated, as to impose upon it a different structure. Another circumstance is never to be forgotten. To such a degree of barbarity were the inhabitants of the Roman provinces degraded by the long continued effects of a detestable government, that the invaders had really not much to accomplish to reduce them to the same level with themselves. This was abundantly seen in the state of the Greeks of the eastern empire, who, upon their very first subjugation to the Turks, exhibited a condition not greatly different from that in which they grovel at the present day. The conquest to which, with the greatest propriety, that of the Hindus by one tribe of Tartars might be compared, would be the conquest of the Chinese by a similar tribe of Tartars: there is no reason to think that the one was a conquest of a more destructive nature than the other. If the Moguls did not adopt the religion and institutions of the Hindus, it was because the religion and institutions of the Hindus admitted of no participation, and because the Moguls had already embraced a more enlightened faith.’ (Vol. i. p. 438.)

Every feature of the Hindu institutions, political, legislative, or religious, bears evidence of the backward state of their civilization. Their princes appear scarcely to have had ministers or officers for particular departments of government; and they seem to have known no other means of delegating their power than by appointing to each province a governor or vice-gerent, whose authority, in the particular province, was as absolute as that of the sovereign over the kingdom at large. If the province was too extensive for personal inspection, it was subdivided into parts; and sub-governors, still with unlimited local power, were placed over the districts. Of tactics the Hindus were completely ignorant; and we meet in their records with nothing on this subject but general exhortations to firmness and valour.

‘ *Extra-*

Extravagant Notions of Regal Power. — ‘ “If the world had no king,” says the Hindu law, “it would quake on all sides through fear; the ruler of this universe therefore created a king for the maintenance of this system.” Of the high and uncontrollable authority of the monarch, a judgment may be formed from the lofty terms in which the sacred books describe his dignity and attributes. “A king,” says the law of Menu, “is formed of particles from the chief guardian deities, and consequently surpasses all mortals in glory. Like the sun, he burns eyes and hearts, nor can any human creature on earth even gaze on him. He, fire and air; he, the god of criminal justice; he, the genius of wealth; he, the regent of waters; he, the lord of the firmament.” (Vol. i. p. 122.)

Administration of Justice. — ‘ After the care of protecting the nation from foreign aggression, or from internal tumult, the distribution of justice was the next duty of the king. In the first stage of society the leader in war is also the judge in peace; and the regal and judicial functions are united in the same person. Various circumstances tend to produce this arrangement. In the first place, there are hardly any laws; and he alone is entitled to judge who is entitled to legislate, since he must make a law for every occasion. In the next place, a rude people unused to obedience would hardly respect inferior authority. In the third place, the business of judicature is so badly performed as to interrupt but little the business or pleasures of the king; and a decision is rather an exercise of arbitrary will and power than the result of an accurate investigation. In the fourth place, the people are so much accustomed to terminate their own disputes, by their own cunning or force, that the number of applications for judicature is comparatively small. As society advances, a set of circumstances opposite to these are gradually introduced; laws are made which the judge has nothing to do but apply: the people learn the advantage of submitting to inferior authority: a more accurate administration of justice is demanded, and cannot be performed without a great application both of attention and of time: the people learn that it is for the good of the community that they should not terminate, and that they should not be allowed to terminate, either by force or fraud, their own disputes: the administration of justice becomes then too laborious to be either agreeable to the king or consistent with the other services which he is expected to render, and the exercise of judicature becomes a separate employment, the exclusive function of a particular order of men.

‘ To this pitch of civilization the Hindus had not attained. The administration of justice by the kings in person stands in the sacred books as a leading principle of their jurisprudence, and the revolution of ages has introduced no change in this primæval practice.’ (Vol. i. p. 127.)

Nothing can be more rude or unskilful than the arrangement of the Hindu law-books: they contain no division into heads; and they lay down the rules of education, the duties of domestic life, or the ceremonies of religion, in the same style
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and with the same authority as the rules for the distribution of justice. The king being pledged to govern according to the sacred books, and the interpretation of them resting with the Brahmans, the latter possessed, in a great measure, the power of legislating; and it is one of their caste who acts as the representative of the king in a judicial capacity, whenever the latter is prevented from appearing. Still the controul of the army, and the direction of the treasury, gave the crown an influence which prevented it from falling into absolute dependence on this powerful caste.

Progress in Architecture and other Arts. — The arts first practised in a rude society are those which procure food, and shelter from the inclemency of the weather; and hence the early progress of architecture and weaving. The antient buildings of Hindustan have excited the admiration of travellers, and captivated a number of superficial writers: but even the most celebrated of these buildings, as the pagodas of Chillumbrun and Seringham, or the subterranean temple of Elephanta, are remarkable only for their magnitude, like the tower of Babel, the pyramids of Egypt, or the great temples of the Mexicans. The Hindus were long unacquainted with the construction of arches, and acquired a knowledge of them only from their Mohammedan conquerors. As to weaving, the progress of the Hindus was very different, for no modern nation can vie with them in the texture of their fabrics: — but this is easily explained: their country afforded them the finest cotton; and the work required little activity, but great patience, for which they are proverbial, as well as for a delicacy of touch adapted to the nicest operations of the loom. Other backward nations have been remarkable for their progress in weaving; viz. the Babylonians, the Goths, and the Mexicans. The Hindu loom is coarse and ill fashioned, without an expedient for rolling up the warp, and consists of little more than a few sticks of wood simply joined together. — Another art in which they excelled, that of dyeing, is to be explained partly by the superior quality of the dye-stuffs produced in India, and partly by the simple and easy nature of that art; with which the Jews, the Phœnicians, the Chinese, and other half-civilized nations have all been intimately conversant.

The agriculture of the Hindus is extremely rude, and their implements are awkward and inefficient. Their plough consists of a few pieces of wood clumsily put together, and does little more than scratch the surface; several ploughs following one another to deepen the same furrow. The substitute for a harrow is in some parts a branch of a tree, in others a log of wood,

wood, and in several an instrument resembling a ladder, drawn by bullocks, and guided by two men who stand on it to increase its weight. The Hindu cart is a vehicle with two wheels, which are frequently solid pieces of wood, with a hole in the middle for the axle-tree; but, as the roads are wretched, almost all commodities are carried on the backs of animals. The people have no discrimination as to the quality of seed, and not much as to the distinction of seasons; and to keep land in fallow, or under a rotation of crops, is a refinement far beyond their reach. Corn is still separated from the straw by the old plan of treading with oxen, and the grinding commonly takes place in hand-mills, by women. Irrigation, on the contrary, is managed with considerable care and labour: but this is in a great measure owing to government, as the decay of the tanks or reservoirs would involve an immediate suspension of revenue. In jewellery, — that is, in cutting, polishing, and setting the precious stones, — the Hindus have made considerable proficiency: but that art implies little previous civilization, having been possessed by the Jews in the time of Moses, and by the Mexicans at the date of the Spanish invasion. The remarkable part is the neatness, and, in some cases, the celerity with which the Hindu artist performs his work, with very indifferent implements: but dexterity of this kind is the characteristic of a rude people, betokening only ingenuity in the individual, while the imperfection of the tools is a proof of non-improvement in the society at large. The same remark holds good with regard to countries nearer home; for our travellers can hardly cross the Irish or the English Channel without being struck with the inferior implements of the mechanics and peasants, as well as with the ingenious efforts of particular individuals to make up for the deficiency. As to glass, the Hindus knew the mode of making it, but had no idea of applying it to any useful purpose: and in mechanics generally they are evidently inferior to the Chinese, humble as is the rank of the latter.

The fine arts are avowedly in a very poor state among the Hindus: their sculpture and their painting being remarkable only for the mere mechanical part, or that which requires solely time and patience; while in the province of genius and taste they manifest nothing but indications of rudeness. Of the rules of proportion they know little, and of perspective nothing: their merit, like that of the Russians, lies in imitation; and they copy with great exactness, whether from nature or a prepared model. In music they are still more unskilful, and some travellers are of opinion that the instruments most pleasant to a Hindu ear are those which make
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the loudest noise. Their claim to the invention of the game of Chess is by no means improbable, amusements of that kind being natural to an uncultivated mind when devoid of motives to steady industry: nor can it be rated very high when we find the Araucanians, an unlettered tribe in Chili, acquainted with it, and probably intitled, like the Hindus, to the merit of its discovery.

Having thus conveyed some idea of the contents of this work as it regards the state of society in India, we must perform the same duty with respect to the historical part, viz. the early settlements of our countrymen, their progressive increase, their intervention in internal politics, their wars, and the vast eventual extension of their empire. These subjects occupy the second and third volumes: but, being far too extensive for the limits of a critical journal, they can be noticed only in the form of an abstract, of a very condensed nature.

Carnatic. — The war between France and England extended to India in 1746: Madras surrendered to the French in that year, but forthwith evacuated by them: their unsuccessful attempts against it in 1747: a similar failure in the attacks of Pondicherry by the English. After 1748, interference of the French under Dupleix in the politics of the interior of India: productive of hostilities between the native princes, in which both the French and English participated. Operations with alternate success until the end of 1754: first exploits of Clive. Peace during 1755, 1756. War between France and England extended in 1757 to the Carnatic; the French commanded by Lally; alternate success of the two nations; failure of the French; capture of Pondicherry in 1761: their final submission. Renewal of internal troubles in the Carnatic. War in 1767 with Hyder Ali, ruler of Mysore: varied success of the operations. Approach of Hyder Ali to Madras, and precipitate conclusion of peace. Peace preserved till 1778, when the war with France produced a renewal of hostilities with Hyder Ali: alternate success by sea and land: Sir Edward Hughes opposed by Admiral Suffrein. Hyder Ali invades the Carnatic in 1780; operations with alternate success; his death in 1782. Succeeded by Tippoo Saib: peace with France in 1783, and with Tippoo in 1784.

Bengal. — Attack on Fort-William by Suraja Dowla in July, 1756; its capture, and catastrophe of our countrymen in the dungeon called the Black Hole. Fort-William retaken; Suraja Dowla dethroned: his substitute, Meer Jaffier, bound to pay large sums to the English: monopoly of various branches of trade by the servants of the Company: hostilities between the English and the Princes in the Upper Provinces: extension of the military power of the Company. Second administration of Clive in 1765—6 renewed and extended monopoly of trade by the servants of the Company.

Pecuniary

Pecuniary embarrassments of the Company; fluctuation of its mercantile profits: improvident increase of the dividend on its stock at home: raised in 1766 from 6 to 10 per cent., and afterwards temporarily to 12½ per cent. Application to parliament for pecuniary aid. Exaggerated estimate in England of the wealth of India: dissatisfaction at its not affording a surplus revenue: parliamentary proceedings: relief granted in 1773, but accompanied by an act altering materially the mode of governing India, and transferring a share of the higher patronage to the crown. Defects of this act.

The reader will perceive from this outline that our countrymen of the last age fell into the same pecuniary miscalculations as in the present; never doubting that India was capable of affording a large surplus-revenue, and imputing the continued deficiency to embezzlement on the part of those through whose hands the public money passed. So strong was this conviction that, after 1771, the collection of the revenue of Bengal was taken by the Company into its own hands, and the taxes were let on lease: but great was the disappointment on still finding that arrear after arrear accumulated, that remission after remission became unavoidable, and at last (in 1777) that a country, reputed at one time inexhaustible, had been taxed beyond its means.

Contents continued. — Administration of Mr. Hastings from 1772 to 1785; remarkable less for military operations than for changes in internal economy. Arrival from England of the parliamentary members of the Supreme Council at Calcutta: that council divided into two parties. Pecuniary corruption of servants of the Company. Mr. Hastings's conduct examined: changes in the collection of the revenue. A supreme court of justice with English judges established at Calcutta; its assumption of extended power; the consequences on the revenue, administration of justice, and conduct of individuals: its power restricted by act of parliament. Mr. Hastings's visit to the upper provinces in 1781: his treatment of the Rajah of Benares; of the Nabob of Oude; of the Begums of Oude. Close of his administration in 1785; his impeachment in 1787; his trial continued at distant intervals; his acquittal in 1795.

Mr. Fox's India-bill in 1783; lost, and followed by Mr. Pitt's bill in 1784. In Bengal, temporary government of Macpherson; arrival of Lord Cornwallis in 1786: war with Tippoo Saib; military operations in 1790, 1791; conducted with varying success, but terminated in 1792 by the surrender of the half of Tippoo's dominions. Improvement in the mode of collecting taxes and administering justice in British India. Cornwallis succeeded in 1793 by Sir John Shore (now Lord Teignmouth): peace preserved during his administration. Arrival of Marquis Wellesley in 1798. War declared against Tippoo: capture of Seringapatam, and death of Tippoo, 4th May, 1799. Native princes deprived of power by Marquis

Marquis Wellesley; the Rajah of Tanjore; the Nabob of Arcot; the Nabob of Oude: British troops stationed in the territory of these and other princes. War of 1803 with Scindia and the Rajah of Berar; battles of Delhi and Laswaree by Lord Lake; of Assaye and Argaum by Sir Arthur Wellesley. War with Holkar in 1804: disastrous retreat of Colonel Monson; defeat of Holkar. Lord Wellesley succeeded in 1805 by Marquis Cornwallis; death of the latter; relinquishment of much of the conquered territory; peace with Holkar. Conclusion of the history.

In our next Number, we shall pass from the subject to the author, and comment at some length on his views of government and jurisprudence, as well as on his merits with respect to style and arrangement.

[To be continued.]

ART. II. *Journal of a Tour in the Levant*. By William Turner, Esq. 3 Vols. 8vo. 3l. 3s. Boards. Murray. 1820.

AT a period when books are multiplied to an extent which fifty years ago, it would have been extravagant to have predicted, voyages and travels by no means fall short of their proportion to the general increase; and *quis leget hæc?* though a question which every author should ask, before he adopts the irrevocable resolution of printing and publishing, seems scarcely to occur to our modern tourists and voyagers. Undismayed by the obvious circumstance that the objects, which they have seen and recorded, may have been also seen and recorded by others,—and that a route diligently explored and elaborately illustrated by profound scholars, and learned antiquaries, leaves nothing to be gleaned to gratify the taste or curiosity of the public,—they still continue in rapid succession, whatever may be their competency for instructing or amusing, to throw their note-books into the various shapes of ponderous quarto and voluminous octavo.

The author of these volumes, a young gentleman in the Foreign Office, states with becoming modesty the absolute impossibility of contributing to the stock of information already communicated by Sandys, Wheeler, Stuart, and Gell; and he rests 'his hopes of exciting interest on the opportunity afforded by the informal style of a journal, for describing the manners of the countries he visited; though even this humble intention has been anticipated by the exact and admirable work of Dr. Holland.' The rigor of criticism is almost disarmed by so frank an acknowledgement: but long experience has rendered us somewhat incredulous of these declarations, which form a
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part of the usual ceremonies of a modern preface. The unwillingness of an author to appear in print is nearly as unmeaning, and perhaps just as sincere, as the *nolo episcopari* of a new bishop. Slender is the faith therefore which we lend to young writers, who, after having disabled themselves by whole pages of diffidence, and kindly thrown the blame of publication on their friends, still venture to be candidates for the public approbation: though we concede to them, at the same time, the praise which Cowper allows the blushing orator of the senate,

“ Sweet bashfulness ! it claims at least this praise ;

The dearth of information and good sense

That it foretells us always comes to pass.”

We are not much better disposed to receive Mr. Turner's apology, that ‘ the public would not expect any depth of learning from one whose time was occupied by official duties.’ In the private circle of his friends, to whose inauspicious suggestions the world is indebted for Mr. Turner as an author, and among applauding sisters and cousins, such a plea might excuse the flippancies and imperfections of his journal: but no fairer pretext can be urged for the publication of his crude and undigested note-book, than for walking into a drawing-room with unbuttoned vestments, or with his hose dragged down to the heel. Mr. Turner must be tried like other authors, by the merits or defects of his performance.

We do not make these remarks without reluctance, for no species of writing is in our opinion more intitled to critical lenity than books of foreign travel; and we would rather encourage the disposition of these writers to communicate their researches, than run the risk of losing valuable information, or foregoing a pleasing amusement, by indiscriminate and overbearing censure. Nor do we object to the form of a journal. If a spirit of reflection pervades it, and it is an animated record of the series of impressions communicated by the successive objects which passed before the eye, we know of no shape in which the result of a traveller's researches can be more advantageously or pleasingly imparted. Even the egotism necessarily mixed with the daily details of an interesting tour, and the petty disquietudes and minor vexations that beset all Englishmen as soon as they leave their native isle; — even these, in the hands of a spirited narrator, are far from being heavy or tedious. “ *The Diary of an Invalid*,” for instance, by Mr. Matthews, (see our Number for January last,) is a specimen of a journal consisting of something more than a barren entry of dates, ejaculations against bad roads and beds swarming with vermin, distances of one place from another, and the

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petty arrangements of an ordinary traveller. It is the observation of the eye, improved by the understanding, and acting on a playful and active imagination. To exact these qualifications, indeed, from every one who prints the record of his travels, would be unjust and invidious; for the writer whom we have incidentally mentioned is of that class of reflecting and at the same time lively observers, who appear only now and then, as if to throw a deeper shadow of dulness and mediocrity on the effusions of less accomplished tourists. Still we have reason to murmur, when Mr. Turner empties on us the contents of his diary in the crude and unconnected form of their original entry; which, from haste, interruption, and a thousand circumstances incident to travelling, must in general be unfit for the public eye. We recollect, also, that the same ground has not only been trodden by the authors whom he has himself enumerated, but amply elucidated by the learning and industry of Dr. Clarke, and the minute research and unwearied assiduity of Mr. Dodwell.

However, as we are not at liberty to cater for ourselves, and are obliged to sit down to that which is placed before us, we must take Mr. Turner's journal with its faults and imperfections; placing, indeed, on the favourable side of the scale, those portions of it which convey new information, or throw additional lights on that which we possessed before. We are happy, then, to extract for the amusement of our readers his account of the British ambassador's audience of the sultan at Constantinople; a ceremony which Mr. T.'s situation* in the embassy afforded him the opportunity of witnessing, and consequently of representing with fidelity. The things "to be seen and observed," says Lord Bacon, speaking of foreign travel, "are the courts of princes, especially when they give audience to ambassadors." (*Essay of Travel*.)

' It is usual for ambassadors to wait under some large spreading trees till the grand vizir passes, and precedes them to the seraglio. The kaimakam (the officer who represents the grand vizir when that minister is absent from the capital) came immediately, with some other officers of state and a great crowd of attendants, and we followed him to the seraglio. Having entered the first gate, we passed through a large open unpaved quadrangular plain, enclosed by low buildings, (in this plain the janizaries were drawn up to the number of between two and three thousand,) before we came to the second gate; which having also passed, we stopped on the further side of it, immediately at the entrance, in a large square

* Mr. Turner was attached to the embassy to Constantinople, which was sent out in 1812 to secure and hasten the signature of peace between the Porte and Russia.

chamber between the second and third gates, called Capi Arase (*arase* between, *capi* the gates), within which is the cell where grand vizirs and other state prisoners under sentence of death are confined and beheaded. — After waiting here about a quarter of an hour, permission was sent for our entrance; and we passed through the third gate into a large garden, in which stood the divan-chamber and the front of the seraglio, both built after the Chinese fashion, with the roofs, which were very richly painted and gilt, projecting four or five feet beyond the walls. As soon as we entered this garden, the janizaries all uttered a loud shout, and began running as quick as they could; this was for their *pilaw*, the distribution of which was a complete scramble, as I saw some returning with two or three plates, and some with none. This is a farce always played off on these occasions, to impress foreigners with a respect for this contemptible soldiery, who are now formidable only to their own government. We walked forward to the divan-chamber, where the kaimakam was sitting in state, immediately opposite the entrance, on the centre of a sofa extending along one side of the chamber, covered with the richest silks, at the further ends of which, on each side of him, sat the Cadileskers of Roumelia and Anatolia. The chamber was small, but richly decorated, the ceiling being splendidly painted and gilt. It was divided from chambers adjoining on each side, by partition walls, which did not reach to the ceiling. The roofs of two of these apartments were surmounted by lofty cupolas. We walked to one side of the room without making any salutation, as no notice was taken of us: when we had been there some minutes, a number of Turks entered, and ranging themselves in two rows from the kaimakam's seat to the door, represented the trying of one or two causes, which lasted about a quarter of an hour, and was intended to impress us with a sense of their justice. —

‘Previously to their appearance, the kaimakam had sent a letter to the Sultan, stating, in what I was informed was the usual style, that an infidel ambassador was come to throw himself at his Highness's feet; and at the end of the mock trials, the royal answer was announced, which the kaimakam rose and advanced to receive. It was enclosed in an envelope; and when this was stripped off, there appeared a quantity of muslin, in which the letter was wrapped. The kaimakam, as he took off the seals, gave them to the bearers of the letter, who kissed them, applied them to their forehead, and pocketed them. He himself, taking the letter out of its muslin folds, kissed it, and applied it to his forehead before he read it. The accustomed tenour of this letter was, as I was told, a command to “feed, wash, and clothe the infidels, and bring them to him.” As soon as the kaimakam had finished reading (at half-past eight), two tables were laid (*i.e.* two very large plates of tin, laid on a reversed stool, round which we sat, with embroidered towels spread on our knees), one for the kaimakam and the ambassador, the other for the gentlemen of the embassy. We sat down to a collation, consisting of about thirty Turkish dishes, brought in one at a time, and rapidly removed, for no one was

likely to feel an appetite, at such an hour, for sweet and savoury dishes. On the removal of the dinner, water was poured over our heads, according to the Turkish custom.

‘ All this time the Sultan had been looking at us through a gilt lattice, over the kaimakam’s seat, so thick, that we could only see that some one was there, without being able to distinguish the person. After this collation, we left the divan-chamber, and went into the garden, where pelisses were distributed, the first dragoman calling over the names of those to whom they were assigned. Here we waited for half an hour under a tree, with nothing for the ambassador to sit on but a dirty wooden bench, till the kaimakam, who is supposed to have been detained by business in the divan-chamber, had passed us and entered the palace. The path he walked on was lined on each side with attendants, who bowed low to him, and he kissed his hand to them, but took no notice of us.

‘ The ambassador with a certain number (twenty) of his suite followed him, those only being admitted who wore pelisses; and this distinction shews that the pelisse is intended not to confer honour on the wearer, but to equip him in a dress as similar to the Turkish as a foreign embassy can be induced to wear. At the door each of us was seized by two Capigi bashees, who held us by the arm; a precaution established, it is said, ever since the attack made on Bajazet II., by a dervisch, in 1510. But as every Turk of distinction visiting another is received in the same manner, this might be taken as a compliment, if our conductors had not carelessly banished such an idea by pinching the arm they held so unmercifully, that I was once or twice provoked to call out to them, in the Sultan’s presence, to their extreme terror; and by the same means I resisted successfully their repeated attempts to bow my head by force. We had had the precaution to go without swords, as we should not have been permitted to enter the presence-chamber with them; and, indeed, the ambassador was asked if he had one on. We kept our hats on in the presence-chamber, as the Turks think it the height of indecorum to uncover the head in public.

‘ Thus led, we passed through an outer hall and a room splendidly furnished, with a carpet richly worked in gold, in which were drawn up lines, three deep, of the white eunuchs, of whom there were not less than two hundred. When we entered the throne-room, we advanced bowing.

‘ The Sultan was sitting at one end of it, on a throne formed like a four-posted bed, and superbly decorated. The seat, of black velvet, was covered with strings of fine pearls, and from the top were suspended many ostrich-eggs, gilt and scattered with diamonds. His turban was surmounted by a splendid diamond aigrette and feather; his pelisse was of the finest silk, lined with the most valuable sable fur, and his girdle was one mass of diamonds. I thought him the handsomest Turk I had seen: his features were regular, his eyes piercing, and his countenance bore the character of fierce determination, which has since marked his conduct;

conduct; its deadly paleness was strongly contrasted with the deep blackness of his ample beard, produced probably by artificial dye; his age was then twenty-eight. The ambassador, standing close before him, recited his speech in French, which the dragoman of the Porte translated, and the reply was spoken by the kaimakam, and rendered in French to the ambassador by the same interpreter. All this time, the Sultan scarcely moved, and only turned his head twice, but his eyes were very busy. All his attendants, not excepting the kaimakam, stood immoveable, with their hands before them, and their eyes fixed on the ground.

At the termination of the ceremony, which lasted about ten minutes, we all retired, the Capigi bashies pushing us with great vehemence, lest we should turn our backs to the Sultan. We walked out of the two inner gates, and there mounted our horses, but waited, according to custom, outside for the kaimakam, who kept us near half an hour, for no other object than to dazzle us with the pomp of his equipage and retinue. We followed him as far as the Porte, where he left us without any ceremony of taking leave; and we rode on to the water-side, where we found our boats, landed at Topehana, and proceeded on horseback, groaning under our fur-pelisses, to the palace, which we reached at noon, each of us heartily glad to have finished his part in a scene, of which the curiosity ill compensated the fatigue, and of which the meanest among us could not but feel the degradation.

It would be unreasonable to expect much novelty of information or reflection on the subject of Constantinople. Mr. Turner estimates the population of the city, including Pera, Galata, and Scutari, to be between six and seven hundred thousand; which is evidently beyond the computation of Eton and Volney, and is a proof of a considerable increase. For this fact Mr. Turner very sensibly accounts, and deprecates the inference of its being deemed an evidence of the prosperity of the country. 'It is from the desolation,' he observes, 'of the provinces, and the securer shelter from oppression enjoyed by a large community, that the cities of this declining empire are well peopled. When I passed Gallipoli in 1812, that city contained 12,000 houses; when I landed there in 1815, there were 4000 additional houses, inhabited chiefly by natives of the north of Greece, who during that interval had fled from their homes to avoid the ravages of the robbers and pirates who infested it, and the equally dreaded violence of the soldiery.' (Vol. i. p. 91.) Whole villages and tracts of country are exhausted to people the capital. Measuring Egypt, Greece, Syria, and Anatolia, on the map, and comparing the square miles of fertile territory with their slender population, we are tempted to smile at the theory of Mr. Malthus, and to regard the pressure of population; at least in these countries, as an idle terror: but the

fact is, that nowhere on the inhabited globe does population actually press more on the limits of subsistence, than in those parts of Turkey which once possessed as many populous cities as they now count villages. Insecurity of property is the great cause of this evil. They who sow cannot calculate on reaping; and the legalized exactions of tyranny, or the barbarous incursions of predatory tribes, have gradually reduced the produce of those fine countries to the lowest boundaries of the subsistence requisite for their population. Hence arises the supply which recruits the population of Constantinople, after the drains occasioned by those perpetually occurring evils in that metropolis, plagues or famines;—a melancholy instance of the almost total absence of that local attachment by which, in other countries incomparably less favoured by the bounties of nature, the inhabitants are connected with the soil which they cultivate.

We have omitted all mention of Mr. Turner's voyage to Gibraltar, Sicily, Malta, and Milo, the route by which he proceeded to Constantinople: because his stay at these places was too brief to occupy an important space in his journal, and they have been most copiously and accurately described by numerous travellers. During a short visit to the Asiatic town of the Dardanelles, which is called Abydos by the Europeans, Mr. Turner adverts to the performances of Leander and of Lord Byron in swimming across the Hellespont: but it seems, he says, that our English bard forgot, when he exulted in his enterprize as a proof of the historical probability of Leander's adventure, that Leander swam over both ways, with and *against* the tide; whereas his Lordship only swam *with* it from Europe to Asia, which is comparatively an easy task. To swim across from Asia to Europe Mr. T. found impracticable.

In August, 1813, Mr. Turner proceeded on his tour to Greece, touching at some of the islands of the Archipelago and the Ionian sea. Respecting Tino, an hour's visit gives him time only to discover that the wine was very good and the women very beautiful. Zante has a striking appearance from the sea. The town stands in a semicircular bay, and behind it rise two high sister-mountains, on one of which is a neat castle, 'and on the other' (says Mr. Turner, we suppose by way of heightening the picturesque description,) 'hung a man gibbeted.' (Vol. i. p. 99.) At Patras he saw a dead seal as large as a horse. At Ithaca (little Cephalonia) Mr. T. was wretchedly disappointed; and nothing, he tells us, but his bigotry for Homer could make him believe that Ulysses would choose *Ithaca* for his residence: but at the sight of this island,
which

which Mr. Turner takes it for granted was the memorable isle of the Odyssey, all his classical raptures rush upon him. Happening to sneeze, a Greek exclaimed "*Viva*;" and the sight of Ithaca, combined with this exclamation, (though we humbly presume that it is not to be found in Homer,) reminded him of Penelope congratulating Telemachus on the happy omen of his sneezing. At eight in the evening, the English vice-consul hailed the travellers from the shore; and the writer's enthusiasm was by this time so exalted, that he almost fancied the consul to be Ulysses waiting on the shore for Eumæus. Unfortunately, however, the most unclassical regulations of the quarantine forbade him to land; and the alternative being offered them of returning in the boat, 'or being fired on,' they prudently adopted the former. (Vol. i. p. 106.)

We were happy at length to find the traveller safely landed on the coast of that interesting part of Greece which was included in the general name of Epirus; and in the neighbourhood of Prevesa, and its picturesque and beautiful bay, we longed to accompany him in his researches amid places so memorable in antient history as the bay of Actium, and the celebrated city built by Augustus to commemorate his victory. We hoped that he would have done *something* at least towards the adjustment of a question which still remains unsettled, viz. the actual place where the engagement took place, and which the descriptions of Pausanias and Strabo have left in great uncertainty: but all that Mr. Turner vouchsafes to tell us is this: — that the bay of Prevesa is divided by a narrow neck of land, which reaches half-way across, and that on the other side of it is the famous bay of Actium, beyond which are seen very high mountains. We should have imagined that the ruins of Nicopolis, with a person of Mr. Turner's classical ardour, would have been deemed objects worthy of a less fugitive visit, and a more anxious curiosity. Of the theatre, which is the most perfect existing relique of an antient theatre, he tells us that it was a considerable ruin, and that the gradual ascents were still to be seen on which the benches were placed, as also the external staircase. The same omen befell him at Nicopolis which occurred to Octavius, (whom Mr. Turner calls Octavian,) before the battle, and which he is pleased to term an interesting incident: 'Seeing a man with some excellent horses, I asked him to whom they belonged? He thought that I asked him the name of the one he rode, and answered me "*Nicomas*," the *very reply* which the fortune or the cunning of *Octavian* obtained from the peasant whom he met with the ass!' Those of our readers who recollect

anecdote in Suetonius will be puzzled to find out the supposed identity of the reply.

We were in high expectation of some interesting particulars respecting Ali Pasha, when we found Mr. Turner within a few miles of Ioannina, which he spells Yoannina. Having observed that the lake, which passes by the name of the city, has been supposed to be the antient lake of Acherusia, into which the Acheron and Cocytus flowed, — an error so manifestly absurd, and so inconsistent with the descriptions of the antient geographers, that it did not even deserve the transient mention which Mr. Turner has made of it, — our traveller enters 'the city by a street from 35 to 40 feet wide, but very dirty, and with miserably low houses.' Here he was received by the secretary of the British resident, who walked with him about the town; which, '*I am told*,' says he, 'consists of 3000 houses, 1700 Greeks, 1000 Turks, and 300 Jews.' This is surely a most inadequate estimate. It is true that all calculations on this point must be conjectural, for neither Christians nor Mohammedans keep any register: but still the lowest computation of the whole number of its inhabitants has never been less than 35,000, and Pouqueville raises the number to 40,000. The best authority with respect to European Turkey, the table annexed to Palma's map, assigns 36,000 as the amount of its population. We referred to Mr. Hobhouse's work, who seems inclined to adopt the latter estimate.

Mr. T.'s excursion to Argiro-Castro and Tepelen is as little fruitful of observation or incident as a journey in this interesting part of Greece can easily be imagined; unless an old woman at the convent of Zitza, who was 130 years of age, as they told Mr. Turner, be deemed an exception. The other incident, if it can be called one, we copy, merely as a specimen of the author's felicity of description: 'At the Convent, they (we suppose the monks) have shewn me into a small room, where they have given me a very good supper, consisting of boiled eggs, excellent hot crisp bread, (the latter quality is very rare in Turkey,) and tolerable white wine made in the village. They could not persuade me to like their sour milk, (called yaourt,) which they said was better for the stomach than fresh, nor I them to eat some double Gloucester cheese, which they could not believe to be cheese, because it was coloured.' (Vol. i. p. 122.) At Argiro-Castro, however, he had an interview with Ali Pasha, which, as every fragment concerning that extraordinary barbarian is interesting to a certain degree, we will give in his own words:

'That

'That part of the castle where the Vizir resides is placed on a rock soaring about forty feet above the mountain. I passed through narrow rooms and lines of servants, and ascending a staircase came to the room where he sat, which was divided by a curtain. He received me very politely, and motioned me to be seated by his side. The Pasha was an old man (between sixty and seventy), with large features and a white beard. He looked very fat, but this appearance was increased by the bulk of his dress, especially as he was wrapped in English flannels. By his side were lying some spying-glasses, and at his feet were three boxes, containing his jewels, &c., one of which was inlaid with ebony and mother-of-pearl. He had on no turban, but wore a small cap of purple velvet. — I saluted him with a few words of Greek, which, however, in reply to his inquiries, I assured him I could not speak sufficiently to converse with him directly. I then begged the interpreter, in Italian, to say how delighted I was to see his Highness in such good health; that one great object of my journey had been to see so distinguished a prince, who had such an affection for my country, and for whom England entertained such sentiments of friendship: I entreated him to thank the Pasha for the attentions I had every where met with in his dominions, and to express the pleasure I had felt in passing through so beautiful a country, and in finding such good horses and excellent roads. The Vizir answered through the same medium, that he was only sorry he had not known my intentions to come, that he might have given particular orders for my accommodation. He told me that he did not consider himself at home in this place, having only taken it fifteen months ago, but that Tepelen (six hours further) was his birth-place, which he hoped I would go and see, and that it was at Argirocastro that Albania began. (Upper Albania begins at Tepelen.) That he wished all Englishmen to consider Albania as their home, and that he hoped the friendship between our countries would long continue. He then asked particularly after the health of Mr. Liston, to whom he expressed himself greatly obliged, and dwelt with pleasure on the hopes he had of one time seeing that gentleman, founded on his promise of visiting Yoannina. He told me that his first alliance with England had begun when Mr. Canning was Secretary of State, and that he had received a very handsome letter from that minister, whom he asked me if I knew. He asked me if I had brought any news, and I told him some particulars of Lord Wellington's late victory at Vittoria. I could not help being amused by his reproaches of Buonaparte's ambition and *cruelty*, and his dwelling on the necessity of curbing it. Coffee was now brought me, which, as it was ramazan, was a favour, and the salver which contained it was covered with a linen cloth, for the sake of concealment, or rather of decorum. I took leave after half an hour's conversation, and he politely said, he hoped we should see each other again.'

When Mr. T. reposed at the convent of Zitza, on his return to Ioannina, the son of the primate of that city came to

call on him, and told him that he and his sister were staying at the palace for their health. 'I pricked up my ears at hearing of his sister, in hopes of seeing a beauty, which is a rare sight here. We went into a good-sized room, and I was by no means agreeably surprised to find that my expected beauty was a humpty little girl of ten years old, with a good-humoured countenance.' (Vol. i. p. 142.) On the plain, the travellers encountered a thick fog, which gave birth to the following remark: 'If these fogs be as frequent in Africa, there is nothing preposterous in Virgil's fiction of Æneas being hidden from Dido's court by a cloud.'

Not even the inspiring heights of Mount Pindus, as they are commemorated in Mr. Turner's journal, had power to detain us; and, trusting that our disappointment at the jejune repast, which he has hitherto set before us, may be compensated by the intellectual and moral feast furnished to the eye and the understanding, in the interesting portions of Greece which he was about to visit, we were happy to embark with him in a boat destined for Zante. On the passage, the author was much amused with the superstition of a young Albanian soldier, who carried a little silver-box, containing a small wooden image of St. Spiridion, as a charm against shipwreck. On this occasion, Mr. Turner shines as a theologian; for the Greek having asked him whether the English took such protectors about with them, he replied that the English confided implicitly in God, and had therefore *no need of such*. 'Another of the passengers then observed that, as every great man had his servants, so God too had his, who were the saints, and that their intercession with the Almighty was of great advantage to man. Nor could I persuade them,' says our traveller, 'that the omnipotence of God precluded the necessity of such intercession.' We cannot repress our surprise that this concise argument, on a point involving, it is true, the chief controversy between the Protestant communion and those of the Catholic and Greek churches, should have proved so inefficacious.

Mr. Turner's journal at Zante yields but few incidents. It was here that he was assailed by a violent fever, and for three days was perfectly delirious: but he was very happy all the while, for he imagined himself to be Lord Wellington; and, when the bandage was put over the blister on his back, the natural supposition came across him that they were investing him with the *order of the Bath*, as a reward for his valour. (P. 170.) This specimen of the *ægri somnia* would have been quite enough: — but 'one day,' says he, 'when I was fighting most heroically the battle of Salamanca, I rose from
bed

bed and drew my sword on the soldier who attended me, who wrested it from my hand, and removed it from the room.' — Mr. Turner next indulges himself and his readers with a short excursion into the antient history of Zante; and the result of his researches is, 'that *they behaved very well as a nation* under Dion in his conspiracy against the tyrant Dionysius.' (P. 178.) After this epitome of its early history, we are presented with a statistical account of the island, abridged by the same happy process; of which the summary is that currents are its staple commodity. A cruise among the Ionian islands affords also ample matter for the author's journal; for, while they were off the Albanian coast, his classical enthusiasm, which nearly converted the poor vice-consul at Ithaca into Ulysses waiting for Eumæus, plays the same interesting tricks at an island called Fano, where 'his fancy converted a solitary sailor, whom he saw cutting wood, into Ulysses building his bark to leave the island of Calypso.' This transformation is a lucky instance for those philosophers, who resolve the problems of the human imagination by the favourite doctrine of the association of ideas; for what was it that brought the image of Ulysses into Mr. Turner's mind? 'I was gazing,' says he, 'on the coast from which Pompey sailed to prepare his ruin at Pharsalia, and from which Cæsar followed him to dispute the world.' Now nothing can be more consistent with that theory than that Pharsalia, and Pompey, and Cæsar, should instantaneously have recalled Ulysses and his bark to the fancy of our classical traveller. — It is gratifying to be told that Mr. Turner arrived from this trip safe and sound; and to learn the equally important fact that his friends 'were delighted to see him again, not having been able to imagine where he had been for two months, when he had told them that he should return in three weeks.' (P. 203.)

"I could pity the man," said Sterne, "who can travel from Dan to Beersheba, and say that all was barren." Of that road we cannot speak from experience: but of the interesting route trodden by Mr. Turner, almost every spot of which is consecrated by the sacred associations that endear to our mind the places of antient renown, we must be allowed to say that it required no ordinary powers to make it barren and uninteresting. This gentleman, however, has succeeded beyond all that could reasonably have been predicted, in casting a sombre and deadening hue over the fairest scenes of the world; and in rendering our journey with him through regions embellished with the sweetest charms of poetry, or ennobled by the proudest events of history, a heavy and fatiguing pilgrimage. His journal, indeed, is a register of every incident that ought

not

not to have had a place in it, while it is destitute of all that could have rendered it useful or valuable. We do not exact from a book of travels those vivid and beautiful descriptions with which only taste and genius embellish their productions; for these not being every-day qualities, our stock of useful information would be miserably scanty, if such fastidious demands were enforced on those who write chiefly to instruct and amuse us: but the difference is immeasurable between this rare and inestimable excellence, and a dull catalogue of names and places, a careless flippant chronicle of trivial anecdotes, and hasty and superficial remarks conveyed in language which, so far from being polished, is scarcely grammatical. We cannot find, in Mr. Turner's journal, one topic which adds a particle to the stores of original and authentic knowledge already in our possession concerning the countries which he visited. He relies implicitly on all sorts of second-hand information. The barber who shaved him at Zante, (p. 209.) *a man between fifty and sixty years of age*, communicated to him a fact to illustrate the jurisprudence of the island; and at Corinth, *his host told him* that the city contained 1300 houses. Of this illustrious spot, Mr. Turner's journal imparts scarcely any particulars above the level of the ordinary gossip with which it overflows: but his hostess was a little squab woman, about four feet high, and very fat. He bathed also in the Saronicus Sinus, and walked across the isthmus to perform the same ablution in the gulf of Corinth.

At Castri, the site of the antient Delphi, Mr. Turner's classical enthusiasm, which performed such miracles at Ithaca and at Fano, might naturally be expected to kindle into flame, and to communicate some portion of its sacred warmth to his readers. No such thing. The lofty summit of Parnassus, the vicinity of the Pythian temple, the "common city of Greece," the awful and stupendous landscape amid which it arose, as if framed for the residence of a divinity, — these far-famed haunts of the Muses, and splendid seats of antient superstition, where the riches of the world were deposited, the shrine which the classical pilgrim pants to behold, — are noticed rather than commemorated by this tourist, with a frigid and philosophic apathy so little in unison with the sanctity and beauty of the scene, that it would be a charitable conjecture to suppose that he was half asleep when he saw them, or while he recorded them in his journal. Nothing can surpass the provoking *nonchalance* with which he fixes the localities of the most memorable places of antient history. Of the Castalian spring, he merely tells us that it was on the right of the village, and even with it in height; a description that plainly
proves

proves him to have mistaken it. Of the site of the Pythian temple, (which Mr. Dodwell and Mr. Hughes have fixed perhaps beyond all controversy,) he speaks in the tone of the vaguest conjecture. 'Close to it (the Castalian stream) are the foundations of walls, perhaps those of the temple of Apollo.' (P. 305.) Even the place on which he chanced to blunder is by no means the spot assigned to it by those diligent antiquaries. For the jejuneness of his journal at Thebes, the Bœotian fogs must be some excuse; otherwise, we might be permitted to grumble at the slight commemoration with which he honours the birth-place of Epaminondas and Pindar. Let us not forget to thank him, however, for the valuable information that 'there is a clock in this city, as at Livadia and Salona.' (P. 316.) Of his diligence in antient research, his visit to the gate of the city will be a satisfactory specimen. 'Near it, at the door of two houses, are two large stones with Greek inscriptions, but as they were reversed and not very legible, *I could not stop to decypher them.*'—'We walked to the temple of Theseus this morning, but the heat prevented us from examining the metopes, &c. and we returned home.'

Though, however, we were dissatisfied at the broken crusts and mouldy fragments of Mr. T.'s journal, as far as we had hitherto accompanied him, we *rubbed our hands** in expectation of better fare as he journeyed towards Athens, "the eye of Greece," the mother and nurse of those bright spirits of antiquity, whose sacred forms still seem to haunt the olive-groves of the Academus, or to linger by the classic streams of the Ilyssus or the Cephissus. Mr. Turner's pages, however, are so skilfully contrived as to keep us in a constant flutter between hope and disappointment. What might not have been expected on so inspiring a theme, from a writer who, when he first saw this memorable spot at five miles' distance, tells us that it was 'an æra which his memory will dwell on with pleasure for the whole of his after life.' Yet how instantly is our expectation rebuked, when, on entering into this memorable metropolis; this profound remark escapes him! 'I saluted Athens with the report of my pistols, *a sound which she never heard in the days of her greatness.*'† (P. 321.) After these

* We hope that this expression may pass after we have been told that Mr. T. 'pricked up his ears.'

† This habit of firing his pistols seems to have grown upon Mr. Turner, as we judge from the following passage, which bears strong testimony to his good sense: 'On reaching Athens at half past eight, I fired my pistols as I was generally accustomed to do, in spite of orders to the contrary being in force through the city, because it is a bad thing to leave them long loaded.'

specimens, we must have mercy on our readers. We have toiled through Mr. Turner's three volumes as a matter of duty, but we cannot conscientiously inflict the same penance on others; and to make farther extracts from his journal would be an act of unkindness towards the author himself, whose own good sense will, we trust, dispose him to acquiesce in the justice of our animadversions. In an inauspicious hour, and under the influence of the injudicious suggestions of his friends, he has been persuaded to print what was never intended for the public eye: but this is an error of judgment, for which youth and inexperience may be deemed an apology; and he has sufficient time before him to redeem the mistake which he has committed, by preparing from his memoranda a maturer work, more worthy of his own credit and the interesting countries through which he travelled: for we cannot but suppose that Mr. Turner must be himself aware how unimportant are many of the incidents which he records; such as his hat's blowing off as he was riding into Athens, and his face being swelled by a tooth-ache. He repeats this extraordinary incident. 'Monday, June 13., being still confined by my swelled face, I could do nothing but read and ask questions.' (P. 405.) At present, we have nothing farther to remark than that the second volume consists of his voyage to Rhodes, Cyprus, and Barout; comprehending journeys to Mount Lebanon, Sidon, Tyre, Acre, Nazareth, and the sea of Galilee, through Samaria to Jerusalem, Jaffa, Damietta, Rosetta, Cairo, Suez, and Mount Sinai: while the third narrates his voyage from Cyprus to Rhodes, Symi, Cos, and Boudroun; a journey to Melasso, Yassus, and Miletus; a voyage to Patmos, Samos, and Scala Nova; a journey to Ephesus, Smyrna, and Constantinople, and homewards through Brusa, the Troad, Pergamus, Smyrna, Mitylen, Zante, Trieste, Venice, Milan, and Paris.

ART. III. *St. George and St. Denys. A Dialogue.* By Hugh Melros. 8vo. 5s. 6d. sewed. Stodart, 1821.

WHEN Swift, in the pride of talent, wrote the following lines to Arbuthnot,

“ Arbuthnot is no more my friend,
 Who dares to *irony* pretend;
 Which I was born to introduce,
 Refined it first, and show'd its use” —

arrogant as his feeling may have been, there was some truth in it. If he did not introduce irony, he certainly refined it, in English literature; and what would he now say, when the
 art,

art, in its delicacy, is absolutely extinct ; when the light and ætherial touches of a Swift, Pope, Arbuthnot, Garth, and of their happy successor, a Fielding, would be wholly lost on their pretending, pedantic, prating posterity ! * Let a man, fresh from these heroes of wit, sense, humour, and learning, among our predecessors, turn to the best specimens of similar qualities among his contemporaries, and what will be his feeling ? He will feel, we are strongly inclined to believe, like a person who, hastily entering into a congenial party of friends, to communicate some new and glowing discovery, *has mistaken his room*, (has gone into the “ Momus” instead of the “ Minerva,”) and, consequently, is met by a pail of dirty dish-water, thrown (adroitly, we grant, and *plump*,) into his face !

Such, to drop our metaphors, we conceive to be the difference between the extreme point of wit, in or out of parliament, in the present day, and the wit of Swift ; — such, we are led to imagine, is the *conscious* difference between the most presuming *ironists* of our times, and the author of the Drapier’s Letters and the Tale of the Tub.

We must not, however, too long expatiate on these spirit-stirring topics ; “ we could have done these things, once, perhaps :” but the hour has sounded, and shall never sound again. The reason for prefacing a critique on the present work with such remarks is simply this ; that we do not recollect to have seen, for many years, any humorous poetical effusion that so strongly bears the stamp of the “ olden time,” and that soars so high above its contemporaries, as ‘ St. George and St. Denys.’ Here we have evidently a scholar and a poet ; combining the distinguished powers of both those characters to produce (as our elders did) serious effects by trifling causes : that is, to convey in clever, amusing, and pointed *irony*, many important truths and much well-deserved reproof. The author has imbibed Goldsmith’s feelings respecting the *massing* of property, and the absorption of small farms in large *tenanted* possessions ; the *depression*, in a word, of

— “ a bold peasantry, their country’s pride.”

There are two parties to this question ; those who have property, and those who have not. The former shudder at self-formed dreams of an Agrarian law ; — the latter are naturally eager to *possess*, and rather forget the interval of time, space, and patience, which must occur between their hopes and the gratification of that laudable passion. What,

* We beg pardon for this alliteration.

indeed, are the present proprietors to do? The question of the *inclosure of commons* is not to be agitated now; — if it were, “*much* might be said on both sides;” and we fear that many would still be forced to remark, as many did at first, “Let me consider *what* the question is.” What equivalent, indeed, should be given for the loss of land, it is difficult if not impossible to say. The goose, the pig, the ass, the horse, who once fed on this free land, — how is the loss of these to be recompensed to their master. How are his larger garden and his homestead to be replaced? The advocate for the inclosure of commons will answer, in two ways; first, in the generally increased production of *corn*, diffusing good over all the community; secondly, in the individual correction of bad habits, in the conversion of the smuggler on the sea-coast, and of the poacher throughout the interior, into a steady agricultural character. Alas! alas! — but we have not time to discuss these chimeras. The only practical thing appears to be, (if it seems good to the ruling powers,) to encourage the independent peasantry thus: *to make great sacrifices on the part of the great land-holders*; that is, to allow much more than their legal share to each small proprietor, in the division of commons yet uninclosed, to be guided, of course, by character in such allotment; and to diminish many obnoxious manerial rights. We implore the opposers of such plans to reflect well, before they answer our arguments by accusations of democracy, *Agrarianism*, &c. &c. We confess, on the contrary, a strong aristocratical bias, while the aristocracy fulfils its part in protecting the interests of the people; and they have much to do as individuals, as well as in the aggregate. The *private* good which each great aristocratical landlord may effect, on his own estate, is incalculable; and, if he be of antient rank, his wealth will have tenfold influence when duly employed. Let him, then, reward his tried and faithful agricultural servants, his old and feudal tenants, with some portion of the best independence. Let him *give* them, or sell them, as occasion may justify, a small allotment of land for *their own*; yes, absolutely, (wonderful, and wild as it may seem!) for *their own*; and let them rent the rest. The state of other countries, in which this union of possessed and rented land exists, may serve as an encouragement for the experiment.

We have not been wandering so far from the author of ‘*St. George and St. Denys*’ as the unreflecting reader may imagine; for he too discusses such points, and with a vivacity and spirit which are delightful. He deviates, indeed, into some hyperbole on such subjects: but, as we agree with him in the main, we shall not make particular exceptions.

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The great and prevailing fault of this writer is his disposition to attribute bad motives to opponents, in the grand scheme of political and moral improvement; which weakens the happy irony, embitters the innocent hyperbole, and sheds an inauspicious hue of excessive anger over too large a portion of the whole. Surely, men may be wrong to the utmost absurdity of error, and yet, if they please, their *meaning* may be excellent. With this hint, we shall close our general remarks; which would not have been extended to this length for any ordinary author, or for one who did not appear to us to deserve the most mild and well-weighed advice to correct his excesses in the path of right feeling, and sound judgment. Any thing farther that we shall say of ‘Hugh Melros’ will be only in the way of illustration of our own previous remarks, and of his various excellences.

Nobody can introduce the author so well as himself, or give so characteristic a description of his peculiarities.

‘ ST. GEORGE AND ST. DENYS.

‘ *Canto First.*

- ‘ I left Dieppe the third of May —
The packet, with a gentle gale,
Had run already half her way,
When fell the wind and flagg’d the sail ;
And with the falling of the breeze
She lay a log upon the seas.
The sun was bright, the air was balm,
The waters of a glassy calm ;
And on that calm a fragrance stole,
Fraught with a power so strangely soft,
As breathed Elysium to the soul,
And fixed the grovelling mind aloft ;
And with that fragrance sweet we hear
The waving as of airy wings ;
And sure, we thought, some power is here,
Whose presence all this wonder brings ;
Of more than earth are these perfumes,
Of more than earth these whispering plumes ;
And tho’ no figure meets our eye,
Our other senses witness bear
Some genius charms this summer air,
Some saint or being of the sky.
- ‘ “ Yes ” — to our thought a voice replying,
Allayed our doubts and closed our search ;
“ Two genii, wearied out with flying,
Would gladly on your rigging perch ;
Saint George myself — I’m rather faint
With such a passage thro’ the clouds ;
And Denys is the other Saint —
Be seated, Denys, on the shrouds.’

Such is the *début* of the author ; — and it is easy to discover “ *ex pede Herculem*.” In this little trifling passage, we observe many suppressed classical intimations ; and, among others, the scholar will easily recognise the gentle sound of the wisest of the nymphs approaching to Prometheus, in the play of *Æschylus*. The verses, too, run musically ; and their constituent syllables shame not the harmony of the rhythm by any want of melody in sound.

We must enter at once into the “scurvy comparisons” of the respective saints. Each is eager to pick out the worst faults in the country of his rival ; and, of course, like the mastiffs who quarrelled over their dinner, they leave the bone of contention, or the truth, in the midst. This old observation is perhaps more applicable to the dispute about the French and English character and happiness than any other. A compound of the two would, perhaps, form the best and happiest being on earth. We shall not indulge in the expansion of our ideas on this fruitful topic, lest

“ Farewell ! a long farewell to Hugh Melros ! ”

should be the consequence.

We take the description given by St. Denys of the English peasant in our own times. Thank God, it is not wholly true : but would to Heaven that it were wholly false !

“ To him the seasons of the year,
Succeed in changes sad and drear ;
No cheerful blaze within his cot :
No stores, the fruit of summer labor ;
All social intercourse forgot,
All greetings to the friend and neighbour ;
But cold and desolate they meet,
As the bleak scene of snow and sleet.
Nor shall the blooming May redress
The rigor of their wintry hours ;
In vain it smiles in loveliness,
Awakes the gem, unfolds the bowers ;
As scowls their winter comfortless,
So is their spring without its flowers.
To them it brings but change of toil,
With faint and feeble limbs bow'd down,
The tillers of another's soil
Without a rood to call their own.
Yes, e'en the gay return of spring
When baby W—ds—th mends his pen,
And strains his innocent throat to sing
Those rhymes, the cluckings of a hen ;
When even Hocus feels a trope
Escape from his torpedo lip,
When slaves and curates dare to hope,
And prudes themselves are known to trip,

While nature bids her sons rejoice
Their heart is locked, and mute their voice.

- “ In summer heats a joyless band
(A sickle in each feeble hand),
In rows they reap the yellow grain
That waves but for another's gain ;
While Avarice near with jealous eyes
The gleanings of her field denies,
Curtails the meal and tasks the wretch
To labor thro' the twilight hour,
Still tasks him on beyond the stretch
Of human health and human power.
And when her fruits the soil has given,
And, but for Avarice, made a heaven
Of this our melancholy ball,
To him who sowed and reaped there come
Nor thanks nor fruit — but for his all
A sad and songless harvest-home,
The heart-break of a funeral.
- “ When shuddering at the desert rude,
The soul in its drear solitude
Looks for a mate to bear together
The storms alone it dared not weather,
And nature's kindly whispers move
And warm two frozen hearts to love ;
Despair and hunger o'er the rite
Pour sadness with their withering breath,
The very May of being blight
And blast it to December's death.
And for their babes — ‘ baptized in tears,
The presage of their future years,’
Such servitude remains in store,
So dark o'er them the demon lowers,
That all the chains their fathers wore
Compared with theirs were wreaths of flowers.
- “ Nor only thro' her southern lands,
Array'd to smile by trembling hands,
Pale Britain weeps — the mountain Gael,
The frank Hibernian, hearts of mail,
Bowed by the mammon of the day,
Still houseless bend their desolate way,
Mid wilds and wilder men to roam,
And seek the rest denied at home ;
Or weep with unavailing care,
A step-dame in their native soil,
That all their brave and generous toil
But sows the wind to reap despair,
And rue a villanage yet worse
Than monkish rule or feudal curse.

‘ “ Yet these are they, the generous race
 Who rode in triumph o’er the wave,
 And Gallia’s legions dared to face,
 And glut in youth a foreign grave ;
 They thought to die for England’s laws,
 But, victims of patrician pride,
 They mourn the righteous-seeming cause
 For which their brothers fought and died.
 And while a remnant of your brave
 Return to crouch beneath their fate,
 The land they labor’d to enslave,
 That land alone is rich and great.” ’

It is impossible for honest men to doubt the patriotism of an author who so glowingly speaks of what England was, and ought still to be : but it is very easy to question the political wisdom of stating things so hyperbolically ; and of giving the friends of corruption so strong a hold against those who attack it, as the imputation of a French bias and of an antipathy to England. These are the paltry subterfuges by which powerful antagonists of error and of guilt are for ever baffled and undermined. If their hatred of a bad government be called *hatred of their country*, nine-tenths even of the reasoning population are ready to conduct them to the scaffold ; or *mildly* to cut them off from all the comforts of life. This is lamentable, and can be cured only by a wider diffusion of true knowledge, and practical benevolence.

“ *Talia sæcla suis,*” dixerunt, “ *currite fusis,*
Concordes stabili fatorum numine Parcæ.”

Such a time, we doubt not, *will* arrive ; but *when* — Heaven only knows.

With the reservation which we have already made against the prevailing fault of this poem, we can quote also the subjoined passage with much approbation. The picture of True Religion is indeed beautiful ; and, were it not for the sneer at the end, against the *motives* as well as the *judgment* of those who rely too much on the distribution of the Scriptures as a panacea for our existing evils ; — or who attribute more than its due share to sacred education in the scale of improvement ; — were it not for this serious drawback, we should be able to bestow unqualified praise on the following lines, with which we must close our extracts from this attractive little work.

‘ “ Think not a blind and bigot zeal,
 Think not a power to see and feel
 The Godhead in our earthy leaven,
 Or mutter’d form of words that part
 From moving lips and sleeping heart,
 Are proofs that we are well with heaven.

An open heart, a cheerful eye,
 Content in age, and mirth in youth,
 And speech that never framed a lie
 In words the similar of truth ;
 Our weal and woe so mingled up
 With all that glads or harms our brothers,
 As e'en to pass the sweetest cup
 Untasted, if unshared by others ;
 Humility and decent pride
 Best shield from evil when allied ;
 A modest hope that soars above,
 A soul to sinless joy awake ;
 These are the signs of those who love
 Religion for religion's sake.
 When thus she comes, when thus she breathes,
 Prepare your hymns and roseate wreaths,
 Prepare your hearts — the heavenly guest,
 When once received within your breast,
 Shall chase each passion from its cell
 And turn to heaven your inward hell.
 " But when become a mask, and worn
 Some filthy outrage to adorn,
 Her holy cause herself she libels ;
 When, mocking at the sad complaint
 Of those with thirst and hunger faint,
 She cries ' more Bibles,' and ' more Bibles ;'
 Then in disgust I turn away
 From the foul things men make her say."

to resume the remarks concerning *irony* with which we in this account, we are persuaded that much of the poem re us will fall *dead* on the ear of many readers, from the t disuse in later times of that favourite weapon of our pre- ng worthies of wit and humour. If any man doubts this, im ask himself one question ; Is there a writer in the pre- day who can be mentioned, as a master of *irony*, in the e list, or in any degree of that list, with the names of Cer- es, Rabelais, Butler, Swift, Fielding, and Sterne ? The question carries conviction home, not unaccompanied a sarcastic laugh. In days wholly unaccustomed to such yle, ' Hugh Melros' must not expect to be universally erstood.

ART. IV. *Report from the Agricultural Committee.*

[*Art. concluded from page 299.*]

THE article in our last Number on this important topic con- tained an abstract of the Report, followed by observations several collateral topics ; such as the tendency of farming charges

charges to adapt themselves to the current price of corn; the effect of that favourite measure of our forefathers, a bounty on export; and the nature of our prospects as to a future supply from foreign as well as from domestic sources. While, with regard to the Agricultural Report generally, we found much to approve, we took occasion to point out several omissions in it; and respecting one question, viz. whether we were more or less able than in a former age to meet a partial deficiency of crop, we ventured to express an opinion considerably different from that of the Committee: founding our hope of increased supply on the diffusion of cultivation, in countries not likely to be affected by the temperature which might produce deficiency or failure in the north of Europe. We are now to follow up our observations on points connected with the Report; beginning with a topic which is mentioned more than once in that document, and is urged on almost every occasion by our farmers and landlords; we mean the greater extent of burden borne by them than by agriculturists on the Continent. Without denying that the pressure is heavier, we shall find on inquiry that it preponderates to a less extent than is commonly imagined, and in a different form from that which is generally assigned to it.

Our burdens on agriculture are tithe, poor-rate, and a land-tax which a century ago formed a heavy charge, but which at present is comparatively little felt, its fixed amount bearing an inconsiderable proportion to our greatly extended produce. Assuming that a material reduction must at no distant date take place in poor-rate and tithe, in consequence of the fall of corn, we are inclined to compute these charges, as far as they are paid by the landed interest, at 6 or 7,000,000*l.*; while the land-tax, whether redeemed or unredeemed, is about 2,000,000*l.*; making together a sum of 8 or 9,000,000*l.* What tax or burden can the French agriculturist allege in opposition to these? — the *foncier*, or assessment on real property, which, after all the modifications of late years, forms 20 per cent. not merely of the rent but of the rent and the farmer's profit together. Supposing this heavy charge to be a counterpoise to our rates, tithe, and land-tax, our house and window-tax remain, which are balanced or nearly balanced by the *mobilier* of our southern neighbours. — We come next to the charges incurred in the course of cultivation: viz. seed, manure, wear and tear, and working cattle; in none of which does any considerable difference necessarily appear between the two countries, since our corn has been brought back to peace-prices, and our farming charges are likely to fall to their amount as they stood twenty years ago. The cost under each of these

these heads, as expressed in money, is doubtless less in France : but, in the case of implements, and in some measure in that of working cattle, the difference means little more than inferiority of quality ; an inferiority resembling that which would be exhibited by a parallel between our agriculture of the present age and that of the middle of the last century. A similar remark applies to the domestic expences of a farmer ; the difference lies in the style of living more than in the price of the articles : for in two material points, clothing and fuel, the cost is not higher in England than on the opposite side of the Channel. Stamps are considered by our landlords, with justice, as a heavy charge on the letting or selling of property : but they are equalled, at least as to sales, by the French *enregistrement*. In like manner, the salt-tax in France, though now conducted in a much less oppressive form than the odious *gabelle*, may, in point of privation to agriculturists and extent of injury to the public at large, be fairly put on a level with our salt-tax ; the loss sustained from it in the two countries bearing (see our report of the work of Chaptal, in our Appendix to vol. lxxxix. p. 538.) a remarkable resemblance. With regard to fuel, though the inhabitants of towns in France suffer great inconvenience and expence from the want of coal, the agriculturists find an equivalent partly in turf, and more generally in wood, which, when distant from a town, is seldom expensive. As to a far more important department of agricultural disbursement, the price of labour, the balance is certainly much in favour of France ; the average wages of an able-bodied man not exceeding (*Chaptal sur l'Industrie Française*, vol. i. p. 245.) 6s. a week without victuals : a rate considerably below the average of country-labour in England and Scotland, even supposing the late fall in the price of provisions to bring it below the rate of the last and the present years. This saving is enjoyed by the French farmer equally in the case of domestic servants, whose diet is plain and whose habits are sober ; and it is not lessened, as some of our countrymen may imagine, by any comparative inefficiency on the part of the men, who repair to their work at as early hours and continue at it with as much activity as our own labourers. In what, then, on our side of the Channel, are we to seek a counterpoise to this essential advantage ? First, in the superiority of our implements ; particularly those of iron, which enable men of the same bodily power to do more work or to do it better : next, in the use of machinery, such as threshing mills, which are almost totally unknown in France ; thirdly, in the larger size of our farms, those of our continental neighbours being in general much too small for the beneficial employment of

either capital or machinery; and, lastly, in the power of borrowing money at one or two per cent. less interest than that which is required in France.

We have thus balanced a number of the most important items in the long list of agricultural disbursements, and have brought the question within a comparatively narrow compass. It may in fact be considered as reduced to two points;—on the one hand, the chance of benefit arising to the English agriculturist from the corn-laws; on the other, the heavier excise and customs to which he is subjected. The name of corn-law is not unknown in France, and, under the provisions of 1819 and the present year, the price of 46s. or 47s. for the Winchester quarter of wheat is apparently secured to the farmer: but, in a country accustomed to grow as much as it consumes, regulations affecting import must, in general, be nominal. We proceed, therefore, to the substantial points of difference in the condition of the British and the French farmer, and these will be found in the amount of our taxes on consumption. Our custom-duties, being chiefly on luxuries, do not much affect our agriculturists: but, among our excise-duties, the tax on leather, forming a burden of nearly 300,000*l.* on our peasantry, is unknown in France; while the duties on malt, beer, and corn-spirits, amounting on the whole to the surprising sum of nearly 10,000,000*l.* sterling, are feebly met by the slight tax imposed in France on wine, cyder, and malt. In years of overstock of corn, like the present, the whole of the very large sum which we have mentioned may be said to form a charge on our agriculturists; exactly as the tax on sugar, in a season of over-growth, falls on the West India planter. These, however, are happily extreme cases, and we shall at present suppose them to be out of the question; calculating that of such duties no more is borne by our agriculture than the portion paid for the consumption of the farmers and peasantry. Even then it will exhibit a sum of 3 or 4,000,000*l.* sterling; a sum which may be said to constitute a balance of public burden, greater on the English than on the French agriculturists; and permanent, except as far as it receives a counterpoise from the operation of our corn-laws in particular seasons.

What, then, is the respective situation of the agriculturists in the two kingdoms? Rents, which in this country were doubled, and in many cases more than doubled, during the war, experienced in France a comparatively slender increase; and it may, without fear of contradiction, be asserted that the total rent of that great country did not, at the peace of 1814, exceed the rental of England and Scotland. If, however, the amount

amount be comparatively small, it is steady in its payment : the price of corn is nearly the same in peace as in war ; and the traveller, who passes over the departments of France, scarcely hears any of those complaints or reductions of rent, which among us are taking place on so large a scale.

Are our present Prices of Corn likely to continue ? — The chief cause of the late fall in the price of our produce has, doubtless, been the transfer of additional capital and labour to agriculture ; a transfer naturally attendant on the cessation of a war which employed several hundred thousand persons, and so much of our disposable capital. Unluckily, our trade and manufactures, circumstanced very differently from their situation after the treaties of 1763 and 1783, have not been in a condition to occupy either ; and, although the discouragement given to agriculture by the low prices of 1814 and 1815 prevented for a time the investment of farther capital, the renewed operation of our corn-laws in 1817 and 1818 counteracted this negative tendency, and led to a notion that farming, supported by act of parliament, was again likely to become a profitable business. Hence an increase of cultivation, and, owing to a succession of favourable seasons, a reduction of price : which reduction has doubtless been aided, though to what degree is by no means ascertained, by the large import of foreign corn in 1818.

On the question how far low prices are or are not likely to continue, a prudent reasoner will decline to express a positive opinion ; confining himself to a careful investigation of the past, and to a statement of the principal arguments on either side. He may begin by considering the present reduction as extreme, and necessarily temporary ; after which, disregarding on the other side the 80s. assumed by act of parliament, he may take 60s. as a probable average for the quarter of wheat in a period of profound peace. The chief grounds of argument against any considerable rise above this limit are the tendency of farming charges to fall with the price of corn, the probable continuance of agricultural improvement, and the equally probable reduction of the rate of the interest of money ; to all of which may be added the improbability of any considerable portion of the land under tillage being converted to pasture. Of the arguments on the other side, the first is the annual increase of our population, and the expence of cultivating an additional surface of inferior soil to meet the growing demand. This reasoning, so much urged by Mr. Ricardo and other political economists of the day, would, we are assured, have produced far less impression, if they or the public had the means of recollecting how little of the increase

of produce is derived from new land, and how much from the additional improvement of soil already under cultivation. Practical farmers admit, (see the Evidence before the Corn-Committee of the House of Lords in 1810, p. 55.) that on such land both labour and capital can be beneficially employed to an extent of which none but an agriculturist can be aware.

The next argument in favour of a rise is founded on the operation of the corn-law of 1815; a question of great complexity, and intitled on several accounts to the serious attention of the landed interest. These gentlemen, with Mr. Webb Hall at their head, are very ready to urge that they derive little benefit from it in its present state: but are they, we may ask, sufficiently aware of the degree of hazard that would eventually attend an alteration in their favour? On the occurrence of a bad harvest, as in 1816, the corn-law necessarily becomes operative, and obliges the consumer to pay 80s. per quarter, or more, until import take place. Now is it not very likely that the possibility of realizing 80s., which in Peace is a high price, should have the effect of tempting speculators, and of attracting to agriculture a portion of labour and capital that would otherwise not be vested in it: the result of which is to increase our home-growth, or in other words to keep down our prices. In the notice of the Agricultural Report in our preceding Number, we endeavoured to shew how materially the bounty on export tended to produce that excess of growth which caused a general languor in our corn-market, during the earlier half of the 18th century; and we might have invited attention to a more recent case, and have asked whether the extreme fall of corn during the latter part of 1814 and the whole of 1815 was not the consequence of an import which would never have taken place, if the land-holders on the conclusion of peace had acceded at once to a *moderate* tax on foreign corn, instead of contending for an *exorbitant* import.

The years of peace that have elapsed, fruitful as they have been in statistical revolutions, have accustomed us to the prices of a former age; and we may now, without incurring the charge of ridicule, call on the landed interest to refer to the statute of 1773, and say whether their predecessors did not act wisely in allowing the import of foreign wheat when our own was at 48s.; a limit which, making an allowance for a considerable difference in the value of money, may be put on a level with 66s. in 1804 or in the present day. This season of overstock and ruinous depression we are far from considering as a fit period for new measures: but we cannot help referring the reader to our abstract of the Agricultural Report for the arguments against the existing act, and in favour of a *moderate*

derate duty on foreign corn. Is it not evident that the mention of 80s. as a fit price ought to be avoided when the reality is unattainable; and that the adoption of a reduced import-limit would enable farmers to treat for leases on sure grounds, while it might exclude speculators from interfering with the regular agriculturist, by putting an end to flattering contingencies, and reducing profits to a definite calculation?

Another consideration, less connected with agricultural questions, but equally important in a national view, is whether the adoption of a moderate duty on foreign corn, by giving the monied and the manufacturing interests an assurance against undue fluctuation or extravagant temporary rise in the price of subsistence, would justify government in calling on the fund-holders to participate in a 5 per cent. property-tax, should such a measure be deemed a fit substitute for the repeal of the more impolitic of our fiscal imposts.

If we cannot hold out to our agriculturists much prospect of rise of price, we may be allowed to present a cheering view, in other respects, to anticipate a diminution of their burdens. The present currency of our corn-market is almost as low as that of our continental neighbours; and, our wages being higher, our working classes are so far in more comfortable circumstances than those of France, Germany, or the Netherlands. Of such a state of things the natural and fit result is a reduction in our poor-rate, and any delay that may take place in this desirable measure can be justified only by want of work. Next as to tithe, though all parties in parliament, oppositionists as well as ministerialists, government as well as clergy, have ever since the peace been silent on the expediency of a change, we can scarcely imagine that this season of tranquillity, this æra of national improvement, will be allowed to pass without a correction of one of the grossest anomalies in our political system. The general moderation of our clergy in the collection of tithe is well known; and an arrangement, which should provide for issuing to them out of the public treasury that which they at present obtain in so ungracious a form from their parishioners, would doubtless be welcomed as a most acceptable relief to both parties. In Ireland, how many evils would be remedied, and how many sources of altercation removed, by the adoption of such a measure! In France, the clergy are paid by a specific sum set apart from the general revenue of the country; and, though its amount (1,300,000*l.*) would by no means form an equivalent for the aggregate of the tithe of England and Ireland, the example of so great a country merits attention, as affording a proof of the good effects arising, during more than twenty years, from an abolition of the anti-
quoted

quoted and pernicious plan of tithe. The original provision for the church, in England as in other countries, was charged wholly on agriculture because, at the period of its enactment, land was almost the only description of property open to assessment: but there is evidently no reason, either in finance or in equity, for the exemption of the other classes of the public.

We explained, towards the close of the article in our last Number, the mode in which the diminution of all farming charges follows a reduction in the price of corn, and places the agriculturist in nearly the same situation as in a season of high prices: but a striking exception prevails in the case of tenants on lease; a number of whom, both on this and the farther side of the Tweed, are bound by covenants to a course of husbandry which puts it out of their power to bring their landlords to an equitable settlement. Of the hardships of this generally very respectable class, government cannot fail to be aware: but, in this as in other seasons of unexpected fluctuation, our rulers will probably decline to interpose, considering that of two evils the greater would be an interference with existing contracts. We must therefore lay our account with a period of distress both to tenants on lease and to those who are connected with them; a distress very different from that which, in the instance of land-holders, is removed by the sacrifice of superfluous expence. For this and other cases of suffering, our consolation must be sought in the advantages arising to other classes from a fall in the price of corn; in the power conferred by it on our manufacturers to labour for the supply of foreign markets with little dread of being outdone by their rivals on the Continent; and in the approximation afforded by it to that freedom in foreign trade, and that mutual reduction of duties, so much desired, but till now so much dreaded by us; — and is it not reasonable to hope that the benefit arising to our manufacturing and mercantile countrymen will re-act on agriculture, refunding (at a season, we trust not very remote) the loss incurred by the suddenness of the present depression?

Are our Manufactures benefited by protecting Duties? — The affirmative is decidedly the opinion of Mr. Webb Hall, and other claimants of a high duty on foreign corn: but their conclusions rest, we believe, on no solid foundation. The total value of British manufactures prepared for home-consumption and export was computed in 1812 by Mr. Colquhoun at 123,000,000*l.*; an amount which we shall assume as their present value, supposing the very considerable fall in price to be balanced by the great increase of the quantity made. Of this
sum,

sum, then, above half consists of the three great articles of cotton, woollen, and hardware; in each of which, from inherent advantages, our manufacturers may bid defiance to foreign competition, and are independent of the protection of law. Our cottons are cheaper than those of France, Germany, or the Netherlands, because the import of the raw materials is somewhat less expensive, our machinery is superior, our supply of fuel is more abundant, and the capital employed is subject to a less heavy charge of interest. In hardware, we possess a similar advantage in point of fuel and capital, with farther aids in the supply of the ore, and in a subdivision of labour to which the Continent in no degree approaches. If in woollens our superiority be less decisive, and if the quantity of French cloth be more substantial, the fact still is that, from our power of giving long credit to Americans and others, we as yet retain possession of most of the foreign markets. We are in like manner exempt from the danger of competition in the home-market in several commodities, such as refined sugar, pottery, glass, and, at present, in the very important article of linen. For what reason, then, are the heavy duties in the statute-book continued? Because in several cases, such as glass, the duty imposed on the foreign article is merely an equivalent or countervailing charge to the excise duty at home; — were the latter not in existence, the former would be unnecessary. Besides, in the long list of our custom-duties, the agriculturist is as much protected as the manufacturer; since the duties on foreign timber, flax, hemp, tallow, seeds, madder, butter, cheese, and rice, all operate or are intended to operate in his favour.

In what cause are we to seek for the origin of an accumulation of custom-duties unexampled in the history of any other nation? Not in a wish to benefit either agriculturist or manufacturer, but in the necessity on the part of government for silencing opposition to a tax on a home-article by imposing a corresponding burden on a foreign one. This precaution was obviously requisite to prevent an importation that would have been ruinous; and the extent, to which our insular situation has enabled government to carry such imports and such equivalents, affords a remarkable example of the length to which it is possible to push taxation. The public were thus led to submit, year after year, to fresh burdens, until our prices were brought to an artificial state; the return from which, in some cases sudden, and in almost all unexpected, has been one of the chief causes of our distress since the peace. Prices have fallen because our home-supplies have been increased to an extent that in many cases put the influence of foreign supply
out

out of the question. This superabundance of home-supply, after having affected various classes in succession, has operated on our agriculturists; depriving them in a great measure of benefit from the corn-laws, and making them raise complaints of grievances beyond those of the rest of the community: but the question lies not so much between them and their manufacturing countrymen as between them and the agriculturists of the Continent, from whom the rival-supply can alone proceed. The comparison should therefore be made, as in the preceding pages we have endeavoured to make it, between the burdens on agriculture in different countries; and such relief as our farmers may require, beyond the protection afforded by a moderate duty on foreign corn, must eventually be sought in a reduction of rent.

Evils of a high Price of Corn. — The injury sustained at present from low prices ought by no means to make us overlook the dangers of the opposite extreme. The corn-bill of 1815 was passed at a time when high war-prices were fresh in recollection, and when neither government nor the landed interest, nor the consumers of their produce, could be prepared for a general or permanent fall of prices: nor had sufficient time elapsed to apprise the public of the danger to our productive industry, from the continuance of a price of provisions materially higher than on the Continent. We had not then calculated the great relative disadvantage, under which such enhancement would place our manufacturers, destined as they are to labour for the great market of the world; a market not to be commanded by favour, by commercial treaties, or even by naval superiority, but requiring, as an indispensable preliminary, cheapness in the articles supplied.

The return of peace was followed by a considerable emigration of the unemployed classes, half-pay officers, annuitants, and persons with large families, to whom the economical living and equally economical education of continental towns presented a strong attraction. All these individuals draw their income from England, and expend it abroad; giving to other countries the stimulus arising from reproduction, and subjecting Great Britain to an injury of the kind so long sustained by Ireland. The amount thus drawn annually, on the conjunct account of emigrants and travellers, we believe to be moderately computed at 4,000,000*l.* or 5,000,000*l.* sterling; and it would have turned the exchange against England, had it not been balanced by the increased export of our manufacturers: — but how much greater would have been the extent of injury, had a continued high price of provisions induced master-manufacturers or their workmen to seek an establishment

establishment on the Continent, in the hope of supplying, not the markets of this country, but those of the United States, of Spanish America, and of China ! Those among us who have travelled abroad since the Peace remark, and apparently with justice, that continental manufactures are as yet far from formidable : but they fail to take into account the surprising change that might be effected by a transfer of British capital and master-workmen. With these potent aids, the inhabitants of Normandy, the Netherlands, or the banks of the Rhine, would soon become dangerous rivals ; for we ought steadily to keep in mind that our superiority as a nation lies not in the individual, but in the operation of collective bodies : as workmen, our neighbours would soon attain an equality, were they placed on the same level with respect to machinery and the division of employment. Our government would evidently have had no means of counteracting the tide of emigration ; which would have flowed in different directions, according to the respective advantages of particular situations : one part of the Continent possessing mines of iron ; another, mines of coal ; and a third abounding in timber, while various tracts of coast approach to ours in the number and capacity of their sea-ports. Happily, no part of the Continent could offer these advantages collectively : so that, although inquiries were made and calculations formed by several of our speculative men of business, no emigration of consequence took place among our labouring classes ; and the recent fall of provisions seems to remove such unwelcome enterprizes to an indefinite date.

Such are the advantages attendant on a fall of corn ; dearly purchased, we allow, by the distress of the agriculturists, by their consequent inability to pay their portion of our burdens, and by the unavoidable transfer of a part of such burdens to the other classes. The fall has unluckily been extreme. An average of 60s. (instead of 51s. or 52s.) for the quarter of wheat would, we believe, have given security to our manufactures, and would not have involved our agriculturists in embarrassment. On this ground, we are inclined to hold a middle course, and to distrust the proposition so boldly hazarded by political economists in the north ; we mean a total repeal of the corn-law, and an unrestricted import of foreign produce. That such would in future afford the firmest basis to our farmers we readily admit : but sudden changes are attended with a privation of income, an extinction of capital, and a train of individual distress that far surpasses previous calculation. No person would desire an abrupt relinquishment of tillage on our ; or still less a transfer of our capital to cult-
tivated

tivate more favoured tracts on the Continent, for the purpose of import into England; and the land-holders might object, with justice, that the free import of foreign corn ought not to be contemplated until they shall be relieved of tithe, poor-rate, and such others of their assessments as exceed the proportion of the rest of the public. Let our object, therefore, be not a repeal but a modification of the existing act; — the abolition of the limit of 80s., but the substitution of a moderate duty, as proposed by the Agricultural Committee. Such a measure could hardly fail, in the course of a few seasons, to bring the price of agricultural produce to a fair proportion with the cost of raising it; since farming, like other occupations, would be followed or not according as it was profitable. Under no circumstances can landlords expect such high rents in peace as in war: but, in the counties in which the improved husbandry is not yet introduced, it is perfectly practicable for them, by following the example of their wiser neighbours, to lessen the sacrifice which they are now required to make: while in their expenditure the whole body will, of course, benefit by that fall in the price of commodities which renders 100l. equivalent, in the support and education of a family, to 130l. during the war.

Mr. Curwen's Answer to the Agricultural Report. — We shall conclude our article by a few remarks on the letter addressed by Mr. C. to his constituents, and printed in the news-papers soon after the Report of the Agricultural Committee came into circulation. The success of Mr. C. in extorting from ministers the repeal of the agricultural horse-tax, after that measure had been relinquished by the Committee, prepared the farmers to give a favourable reception to his views; but, notwithstanding his great merit as a patron of improvements in husbandry, and much as we have admired the independence of his conduct during many years in parliament, we are bound, in critical justice, to pronounce that his knowledge of political economy is scarcely such as to qualify him to express a decisive opinion on the difficult and complicated questions discussed by the Committee. We may therefore be allowed to pass briefly over his demand of a high duty on foreign corn, (mixed up somewhat awkwardly with the demand of a similar duty on foreign tallow,) and confine our attention to a point in which the ideas of Mr. C. seem intitled to higher regard; we mean his belief that the present depression is, in a great measure, owing to the excessive import in 1818. He computes that, in autumn 1819, when we entered on the consumption of the crop of that year, the dealers had *on hand*, and unsold, above 1,000,000 of quarters of foreign wheat;

wheat; a fact which at this distance of time can scarcely be ascertained with accuracy, but which, if but partly true, would account for a considerable share of the existing depression of the corn-market. The probability, therefore, is that we do not, in an average year, produce altogether so much as we consume; in which case, relief may be obtained to our agriculturists without resorting to the ruinous expedient of retracing their steps, and throwing back into pasture those lands which, at a great expence, have been brought under the plough.

ART. V. *Elementary Principles of Carpentry*; a Treatise on the Pressure and Equilibrium of Beams and Timber Frames; the Resistance of Timber; the Construction of Floors, Roofs, Centres, Bridges, &c. &c. By Thomas Tredgold. 4to. 1ls. 4s. Boards. Taylor, Holborn. 1820.

PERHAPS no one of the useful arts is more intimately connected with geometrical principles, and at the same time in no one is that connection less regarded, than architectural construction. Every rafter, tie-beam, brace, &c. introduced into a roof, or in any part of a building, ought to have its due influence in adding strength and stability to the structure. It is therefore requisite that we should be able to estimate the effect of each correctly; lest, in our endeavours to give extraordinary strength, we produce actual weakness by overcharging our frames, &c. not only with an unnecessary but with an actual prejudicial weight, and thus violate the most essential principle of architectural design; viz. that of combining solidity with economy, and lightness of construction with durability and strength.

We must not, however, depend wholly on pure geometrical principles in our determinations of the above particulars: for it is necessary that we first obtain, mechanically and experimentally, certain data on which to rest our computations; that is, we must first, from theoretical mechanics, estimate the effect of this or that particular application of a force or strain; in which it should be remembered that we are under the necessity of considering beams as void of flexibility, without weight or lateral dimensions, and fulcrums as reduced to mere points or lines, and free from any species of friction or resistance; circumstances which never have place in actual practice. Consequently, before we can successfully apply our theoretical deductions to practical constructions, we must proceed experimentally to obtain the mean strength of different materials under different strains, and in various positions; by which means we are enabled, in a certain degree, to modify

our theoretical results and fit them for practical purposes. It cannot, however, be denied that our experimental deductions are very uncertain and precarious, the same strain producing very different effects on specimens to all external appearances precisely similar; so that, after all, our only security rests on a judicious selection of experimental data, and the adoption of such dimensions as shall furnish sufficient stability without an unnecessary waste of materials.

These remarks point out the qualifications which a writer ought to possess, who undertakes to lay down rules and principles to be adopted by his less informed brethren; viz. to a sound practical knowledge of his subject, he ought to unite such a portion of theoretical mechanics, as will enable him to make a judicious selection of results from theoretical authors, and to point out the inconsistencies of certain principles which have been already introduced into general practice. These qualifications we have no hesitation in stating, after a very attentive examination of the work before us, are displayed in a superior degree by its author; and we shall now propose to give a brief analysis of its contents.

The volume is divided into ten distinct sections, of which the first treats of the equilibrium and pressure of beams, or the theoretical principles on which are founded the first ideas of the composition and resolution of forces, the centre of gravity, the conditions of equilibrium, &c. &c.

The second section treats of the resistance of timber and iron, under various circumstances and positions; with tables of the direct cohesive force or strength of different woods, selected from numerous authors, and considerably enlarged by experiments made by Mr. Tredgold and Mr. Ebbels, which (we believe) were never before published. Other tables contain the results of experiments on the elasticity and transverse strength of similar specimens, as also on their resistance to compression. — This is doubtless a very useful and important section; not only on account of its exhibiting, within a limited compass, the results of all the most accurate experiments that have hitherto been made on the subject, also because it includes many practical observations which ought to be particularly regarded by those who are concerned in architectural constructions. We cannot, however, refrain from regretting that, in too many instances, the writer neglected to state the authority on which the several rules given; while in others he has omitted to assign his reason for the particular propositions which he recommends, or is on which he insists. Thus, (for instance,) he says; strength of a tube, or hollow cylinder, is to the strength of

of a solid one as the difference between the fourth powers of the exterior and interior diameters of the tube, divided by the exterior diameter, is to the cube of the diameter of a solid cylinder: the quantity of matter in each being the same: but he makes no reference to the place where this theorem is delivered: nor does he state whether it be a deduction drawn from mere theory, or a practical rule obtained from actual experiment. If, as we suspect, it is derived from the former source, it will in all probability fail in actual practice, and the reader should have been put on his guard accordingly. No theory, perhaps, gives results so wide of the truth as that which has been usually applied to the resistance of solids; and, in many cases, that theory makes the strength greatest where experiment shews it to be the least. Thus, it has always been stated by theoretical writers, from the time of Galileo to the present day, that a square beam, strained according to its diagonal, is stronger than when the strain is directly applied in the proportion of $\sqrt{2}$ to 1; whereas experiment shews it to be weaker in the former case than in the latter, in the ratio of 7 to 10, according to Mr. Tredgold, and as 38 to 39 according to the experiments of Mr. Barlow.*

We might mention several other instances in which we think the writer ought to have given his authority, or should have assigned his reasons for the particular rules which he has laid down: but we must proceed to give a brief sketch of the other sections of the work, — which perhaps we cannot effect in less compass than the author himself has done it in his preface:

‘ The third section is on the construction of floors; the fourth on roofs; the fifth on domes; and the sixth on partitions: these are the parts which demand the greatest part of the carpenter’s attention in house-building; and in each of these sections I have endeavoured to show the most advantageous methods of construction, illustrated by examples.

‘ The seventh section is on centres for bridges; a subject of much importance, in which some better principles of construction are shown than those hitherto published.

‘ The eighth section is on wooden bridges, and it may appear to be extended to a greater length in proportion to its usefulness than was necessary; and yet, when it is considered that there are many situations where bridges are wanted, and where bridges of timber might be constructed at a small expense, and consequently without going beyond the funds that could be appropriated to such a purpose, a few pages on the subject will not appear to be altogether out of place: as I think it may be shown, that the first

* See Mr. B.’s treatise on Timber, Rev. for May, 1820.

cost and subsequent repairs of a wooden bridge would be so small a burden upon the community in comparison with the expense of a stone or an iron bridge, that the benefit of these useful structures might be extended to situations where at present it is unknown.

‘ In order to prevent repetition, the construction of joints and straps is the subject of the ninth section; treating of them together gives an opportunity of comparing the different species of joints, and, therefore, of unfolding the principles of construction in a more distinct and effectual manner.

‘ In the tenth section the nature and properties of timber are considered. In this department of my work I have endeavoured to exhibit a brief but comprehensive view of the most useful facts and observations that have been made on this important subject.

‘ Classing the woods may appear to be a refinement not required in a work on Carpentry, but it is hoped that the following reasons for adding it will be thought satisfactory. In old specimens, there are some woods so nearly alike that they are often mistaken by common observers; now as it is desirable to know that kind which is most durable, it must be an advantage to have some character by which different kinds can be distinguished. For under the impression that chesnut was much employed by our ancestors, and that it is the durable kind of wood found in old buildings, the growth of it has been lately much encouraged. But I have examined many specimens of old wood that have been shown to me as chesnut, and without an exception they have proved to be of oak. Perhaps a closer investigation may show that the growth of chesnut has been encouraged on very superficial inquiries respecting its nature. The character which distinguishes oak from chesnut is the same as that which distinguishes my two classes of woods; and the divisions are also founded on such distinctions as will convey useful information.

‘ The numerous tables at the end of the work will not form the least useful part of it. The tables of scantlings were first calculated for my own use some years ago, and the arrangement is that which I found most convenient. They are the first that have been published of the kind, where the calculations have been made on the principles of the resistance to flexure.’

Such are the subjects of the present volume, which are illustrated by twenty-two quarto plates, very accurately designed by the author's brother, and beautifully engraved by Davis.

We cannot conclude this very concise sketch of the ‘ *Elementary Principles of Carpentry*,’ without congratulating the author on the success of his endeavours to reduce to a regular system the principles of architectural constructions. We have little doubt that his work will become a standard of reference, and will soon pass into a second edition, when he will have an opportunity of supplying some of those references to which we have alluded.

ART. VI. *An Inquiry into the Means which have been taken to preserve the British Navy, from the earliest Period to the present Time, particularly from that Species of Decay now denominated Dry-Rot.* By John Knowles, Secretary to the Committee of Surveyors of His Majesty's Navy. 4to. 11. Boards. Winchester and Co.

THE problem of curing the dry-rot has often been regarded, like those of squaring the circle or of finding the perpetual motion, as a bar set by nature to our progress;—a visionary pursuit, of which the speciousness will always continue to excite a hope, while its impossibility will for ever baffle our efforts. As we are not altogether so sceptical, we consider as worthy of the most serious attention any attempt that tends to elucidate the nature of an enemy who has so long revelled among our fleets, and destroyed with appalling facility one of the most beautiful productions of man. Viewing the subject in this light, we have sometimes regretted that the experiments and trials, which have been made or sanctioned by government, have obtained but little publicity: for, not only in this but in every physical inquiry, to record a failure is to make a step towards success; since every well-conducted experiment will at least serve, by the method of exclusions, to limit the field of investigation, and to concentrate the attention of the inquirer.

It is one of the objects of the book before us to supply this desideratum; and the official situation of the author has enabled him to accomplish it in a way that, we think, is highly satisfactory. From documents little known to preceding writers, he has extracted a clear and well digested account of the numerous schemes, which have been from time to time laid before the Navy-Board, for preventing the rapid decay of the navy. Many of these are of a very interesting nature; and, though such of them as did not terminate in total failure ended indecisively, (we are not speaking of those plans which are still in a state of trial,) yet much of this disappointment is to be imputed to the neglect of the requisite precautions during the hurry of our late arduous maritime contests, when the present energy rather than the future greatness of our fleets was necessarily consulted. The navy, therefore, while it attained to an unparalleled strength, suffered in an alarming degree the effects of internal destruction; and the extent to which this evil had at length grown is thus described by Mr. Knowles:

‘ In the middle of the seventeenth century, thirty years was considered to be the period that a ship lasted; at the early part of the eighteenth century, fourteen years was accounted the time, and

from the result of the experience gained during the late wars, the average-duration of ships did not exceed eight years before they required very extensive repairs.'

We may add that, from a document transmitted by the most distinguished naval architect of the age to the late *Committee of the House of Lords upon the Foreign Trade of this Country, relative to Timber*, it appears that, of eighteen fir-frigates, built of Canada timber in the years 1813 and 1814, the mean duration was less than three years and a half. So rapidly accelerating a course of destruction was truly alarming, and threatened, should the ratio of its progression remain constant, to annihilate that navy which had so nobly resisted the attacks of every other enemy. With the return of peace, however, the bustle and confusion of war have subsided; and time has been given for the evils, which originated in the negligence of haste, to be corrected by the patient hand of care. The diseased part of our shipping, indeed, is not yet extinct: but that portion of it which is of more recent date presents a very promising appearance; and on the whole, we believe, the British navy was never in a more healthy condition than at the present moment.

The cause to which we are to attribute this rapid improvement in the durability of our ships is an interesting and delicate question, and is ably discussed in the volume before us; of which the first chapter commences with a brief description of the properties of timber in general, and of the advantages to be derived from the employment of particular species. The effects of soil and situation are also considered, as far as they tend to improve the nature of the wood, or to render it, in the quaint language of art, foxy, doaty, quaggy or cuppy, heartshaken or cupshaken. In this chapter, also, is discussed the proper age which the oak should be permitted to attain, before it is felled for the purposes of the builder: but Mr. Knowles fixes no definite period, leaving it to be determined by the appearance of the tree, and the circumstances of the case. On this point we fully coincide with him: since so little is known on the subject, that the utmost that can be collected from those who have treated on it is to prefer the limits of 60 and 200 years. Our information is not more certain, nor are our guides better agreed, concerning the extreme duration of this venerable patriarch of the forest, which has been extended from two to the startling period of fifteen hundred years: but such ages are, evidently, either arbitrarily assumed, or deduced from inconclusive facts or wild conjectures. Thus tradition has pointed out the identical tree of which the inter-
position

position was fatal to William Rufus; and an antiquary possessing the ample faith of his profession may yet discover, on the wounded bark, the impression of the deadly shaft.

Mr. Knowles is equally judicious in avoiding any decisive assertion respecting that much disputed point, the proper time of the year for felling timber; rather endeavouring to give a clear statement of the few facts which are known on the subject, than to espouse either side of the question. He traces, with much apparent research, the notion that winter-felled-timber is preferable to any other, from the classic authors of antiquity down to our own excellent Evelyn; shewing that it has been transmitted from him to the present day, with the same boldness of assertion and paucity of proof. He examines also with care the examples which preceding writers have given in support of this very popular opinion, and he often combats with ingenuity the conclusions which they have thence drawn. As a favourable example of this criticism, we might mention his account of the building of the Royal William man of war, where we conceive he has completely refuted the assertions of the advocates for winter-felling: whom he also opposes with equal success in numerous other instances. We will content ourselves, however, with the following brief extract:

‘At all periods of our naval history, it will be found that the officers of government have given a preference to timber which has been felled in the winter; and in the year 1687, the Navy-Board recommended the practice, but they apprehended, “that it could not be carried to any extent on account of the value of the bark, except the government thought fit to order it to be done in the King’s forests.” Whenever parliamentary or other inquiries have been instituted with respect to the state of the timber in this country, and its preservation, these recommendations have been repeated, without however assigning any reasons, except the one which experiments have proved to be fallacious, that it contains less of juices than that felled at any other season of the year. The sap-wood of the excorticated winter-felled-timber kept in piles in his Majesty’s yards has rotted, and been equally as subject to fungus as that on timber felled in the spring; and the officers state, that there is no apparent difference in the alburnum or in the heart itself, and that the sap and heart were not drier, or in a more seasoned state for the trees having been stripped.’

This report is sufficiently decisive of the question concerning the durability of the sap of winter-felled-timber; which it proves to be in no respect superior to that of timber felled in the spring. For our own part, we believe that, if there be any difference, it is rather in favour of the latter than of the former.

The idea of the durability of the alburnum of trees which have been cut down in the winter has arisen, we conceive, from an erroneous or imperfect view of that part of the vegetable economy, by which the rise of the sap is effected; and, as this subject is intimately connected with the theory of the decay of timber, we will take a brief survey of the most approved opinions respecting it. According to these suggestions, the food of plants, after having been collected by innumerable capillary mouths, situated for the most part but not exclusively in the roots, is carried by a series of tubes, called the vascular system, to all the ramifications of the vegetable: in trees, these vessels appear to occupy every part except the pith and bark: but the supply of sap which they afford decreases as we approach towards the centre. The action of this system, in causing the ascent of the juices of the tree, is but little understood, and has been the occasion of much loose conjecture and unscientific reasoning. Before the time of Hook, Hales, and Du Hamel, vegetable anatomists, deceived by the wonderful discoveries of Harvey in another science, had furnished the vessels of trees with valves, by the aid of which they accounted for the motion of the sap in a manner analogous to the circulation of the blood: but, it having been demonstrated that these valves had no existence in nature, a new theory was invented, which derived the cause of the phenomenon from the expansion of an elastic fluid, contained in what they termed the air-vessels. This idea, which we believe was first started by Malpighi, obtained a very considerable degree of reputation: but, after a time, it also fell into discredit; and it is now, notwithstanding a late attempt of M. Kieser to revive it, generally abandoned for the notion of the contraction of the tubes. None of these theories, however, are sufficient to account satisfactorily for the rise of the sap; more especially if it moves with the force which has been asserted, and which Dr. Hales considered as capable of supporting a column of mercury 32½ inches high.*

Whatever be the cause of the motion of the sap, it appears to flow regularly from the roots to the upper part of the trunk; where, after having undergone some unknown change, the rising juices

“ Each widening scale and bursting film unfold,
Swell the green cup and tint the flower with gold.”

* Professor Leslie, in the account of the atmometer which he has invented, asserts that this effect might have been produced by evaporation alone.

Having thus fulfilled their destination, by supplying with food the infant foliage of the tree, they, or the surplus part of them, begin to descend towards the ground: but the vessels by which this is accomplished are no longer the same, being, on the contrary, situated wholly in the bark; where, as we have before mentioned, none of the tubes through which the ascent is performed are contained.

Hence it appears that, in the early part of the Spring, before the leaves and buds are produced, the solid wood is alone impregnated with sap, while the bark is perfectly dry: but that, when vegetation has become sufficiently active, the case is reversed; the ascending juices, partly consumed by the leaves, and partly returned by the cortical vessels, are no longer to be found in abundance, while the bark has, in its turn, become the seat of moisture.

To these observations on the motion of the sap, Mr. Knight has added another of considerable importance to the object which we are considering; for he has discovered, by attentive observation, that the juices of the plant, having answered the immediate purposes of vegetation, are yet farther employed in storing in the alburnum the food, which, rising with the future sap, produces the leaves and flowers of the succeeding Spring. Now it is manifest that this fact, if correct, ought to have great weight in the arguments against felling timber in the winter; for the advocates of that practice acknowledge that the end, which they have in view, is to obtain the wood free from those juices which accelerate its decay; and this, they assert, is effected by cutting down the timber in that season of the year when, the powers of vegetation being inactive, the vascular system is free from sap. Admitting the observations of Mr. Knight, however, it surely follows (although we are aware that he himself has drawn a different conclusion from it) that the saccharine and mucilaginous deposits, which the alburnum contains in store for the vegetation of the spring, must remain in the timber, and render its sap-wood peculiarly susceptible of decomposition, conformably to the observations to which we have before alluded.

We have gone thus far out of our immediate track, and entered into a description of the vascular system of the vegetable kingdom, partly with the view of rendering our reasons more intelligible for opposing the commonly received notion of the durability of the alburnum of winter-felled-timber: but we may also observe that we consider the arguments, which have been advanced in favour of the timber itself, as resting on equally unsatisfactory grounds. Without, however, embarking any farther in the discussion of this question, it will be

sufficient to mention that, while the nature of the deposits which are made in the cellular system remains so little known, it will be vain to attempt to trace the origin of decay to the rising juices in the sap-vessels; and we therefore fully agree with the concluding observations in Mr. Knowles's chapter on this subject, which we will give in his own words:

‘ On a review of all the circumstances, these conclusions are to be drawn, that winter-felled-timber is somewhat heavier, stronger, and less liable to rend or twist, than that felled at any other season of the year; but that wood of a good quality is durable at whatever season it may have been cut down; provided it be well dried before it is brought into use; but that if it be felled at any time of the year and worked into a building before the juices are evaporated by seasoning, and a free circulation of air then prevented, it will ferment, corrupt, and be subject to early decay.’

Chap. III. is devoted to the different methods that have been used for seasoning timber, previously to its being employed, and contains some very excellent practical information: but, as we cannot sufficiently report the details of the subject to do justice to its importance, we will merely give the conclusion at which Mr. Knowles arrives, viz. ‘ that the best mode of seasoning timber, and preventing its being injured during that process, is to keep it in air neither very dry nor very moist; and to protect it from the sun and rain by a roof raised sufficiently high over it, so as to prevent, by this as well as other means, a rapid rush of air.’ We would particularly point out this last observation as deserving of attention; since, though of considerable importance, it appears very often to have been overlooked by practical men, who generally consider a current of air, however rapid, as a valuable agent in seasoning timber. That a stream of air promotes desiccation will be doubted by no person: but that it ought not to be employed without a due regard to the freedom of its access, and the velocity of its motion, is well shewn in a note which Mr. Knowles has affixed to his remarks on this subject, containing the account of an experiment made by Mr. Sowerby, in Deptford Dock-yard; the result of which was that timber, exposed to a free rush of air, though it had maintained a fine compact surface, was yet internally much decayed.

We remember to have heard M. Dupin, whose works on the military and naval establishments, &c. of this country have rendered his name familiar to our readers*, mention

* See our Appendix to vol. xcii., first article. The Appendix to the present volume of the M. R., to be published on the 1st of October, will also contain a report of the continuation of M. Dupin's statements.

some very interesting experiments which he had made on the seasoning of timber; and which we hope will in due time appear before the public. The subject has been too much neglected by the modern writers on the art of building; most of whom have contented themselves with a mere echo of the ideas of preceding authors respecting it. To this censure, however, we ought to make an exception in favour of Mr. Tredgold; who, in his *Elementary Principles of Carpentry*, (see the preceding article in this Review,) has given a mathematical investigation of the laws by which the desiccation of timber is regulated; though we may observe that the data on which he proceeds are too superficial to lead to a complete result. We doubt, indeed, whether the subject be capable of a rigorously mathematical investigation: but, at all events, it would be necessary to have a previous knowledge not only of the laws by which the exterior film of fluid is evaporated, but of those more complicated laws which govern the distribution of the internal moisture.

Having concluded his observations on the seasoning of timber, Mr. Knowles proceeds to give an account of the chemical means which, at various times, have been proposed to promote, or insure, its durability. On this point he has collected much interesting and curious information, which we think will tend to render the numerous discoverers and venders of nostrums for curing the dry-rot rather more doubtful of the infallibility of their schemes. We cannot follow him through all the proposals and trials which he describes: but among them is one which, by its fatal result, more particularly attracts our attention; we mean the project of Mr. Lukin for impregnating timber with oleaginous matter. This scheme was carried into execution on a very large scale in the dock-yard at Woolwich, by placing the timber in an air-tight apartment, or rather house; into which was conveyed, by means of iron retorts, the gaseous product obtained from the distillation of pitch-pine, saw-dust, and pit-coal. Several trials were made in this way, without being attended with the beneficial effects which had been anticipated: but, as the inventor ascribed these failures wholly to accidental circumstances, it was determined to continue the experiments.

‘ On the 30th of December, (1812,) at about four o’clock in the evening, while the person, whose duty it was to attend the fires, and regulate the heat, was in the act of lowering a damper placed on the chimney, the carburetted hydrogen gas exploded, and the building was destroyed. A short time before this occurred, the heat was at 106° only.

The

' The accident was supposed to have been occasioned by some defect in the flue, which during the action of lowering the damper allowed the flame to pass through it into the house, where the carburetted hydrogen was in such proportion to the atmospheric air as readily to explode. The shock occasioned by this accident was tremendous, and its effects fatal: an iron door weighing 280 pounds was driven to the distance of 230 feet; a part of the wall of the dock-yard, although at a very considerable distance, was blown down, and some houses without the premises, which were in a measure protected by the boundary-wall, unroofed. Six men were killed and fourteen much injured, two of whom died from the effects of wounds. The destruction of the building was so complete, that in few cases were two bricks left in contact.

' The timber seasoned according to this method disappointed expectation; those pieces which were perfectly dry, although without the appearance on their surface of being rent, were rendered concave on each side, and when cut were found to be so much cracked internally, as not to be fit for any useful purpose; and as far as opinion could be formed, the gases had not penetrated the wood. This experiment has not been repeated.'

The next subject considered in Mr. Knowles's work is the effect that the strength and construction of vessels have on their durability: an inquiry into which we do not remember that any other author has entered, (with the exception of what M. Dupin has advanced on it, see M. R. vol. lxxxiv. p. 266.) but which we here find discussed with much ability.

' An uneasy ship at sea (says Mr. Knowles) can never be durable; the violent actions to which she is constantly subject must naturally loosen the fastenings, disjoint the pieces of which the fabric is composed, displace the caulking between the planks, and subject the vessel to partial leaks, in particular in the upper works, where the effects of a violent momentum are chiefly felt.'

' Too much attention cannot be paid to the theoretic construction of ships; it is the little difference in lines, unobserved by the unskilful in this branch of science, that causes the great difference between vessels of the same class; and the navy of England has furnished numerous examples to prove that ships, the lines of which are constructed upon true theoretic principles, may remain in service many years without any outward appearance of weakness, although internally the materials of which they were composed may exhibit all the symptoms of a general state of decay; while others, from the violent motions to which they have been subject from a faulty construction of their bodies, have been weak after a short period of service, and constantly afterwards requiring repairs; for whatever skill may be exerted in putting the ships together, or however good the principle may be on which they are built, yet, if the motions of pitching and rolling be heavy, they must in a short time become weak, leaky, and consequently subject to early decay.'

The author then gives a brief description of the principal improvements which have been made by Sir Robert Seppings in the practical construction of ships: but on this topic we need not now enter, the method in question having been described by us at some length in *M. R.* vol. lxxvi. p. 251. By that description, which we endeavoured to divest of technicalities, and to render as popular as the case admitted, it was made apparent that the system of diagonal framing, introduced by Sir Robert Seppings, is one of the greatest improvements recorded in naval architecture. It may be said, indeed, that in other arts the principle has been introduced from the most remote antiquity; and, accordingly, it has been attempted on this ground, both in our own country and abroad, to deprive Sir Robert of the merit of an inventor: but such an endeavour seems rather to originate in the prejudices of envy than the calm decisions of justice; and, if the assertion be allowed to have any weight, it serves only to shew that the difficulty of application was, in the present case, so great that, though the general principle had been known for ages, the requisite modification was reserved for the present day. The originality of our countryman is not likely to be more impeached by the right which the French have asserted to this improvement; since, after having maturely weighed their pretensions, we can discover no other claim than the very extraordinary allegation that several of their mechanicians*, perceiving the advantage which carpentry derived from diagonal framing, sought to introduce it into naval architecture, and did *not* succeed.

To Sir R. Seppings we are also indebted for the method of building ships under a permanent housing: not that we are to attribute to him the first idea of covering shipping with roofs, since that practice has been for a long time adopted at Venice, at Carlsrona, and at some other places: but the great improvements which he has made in the plan, and his success in rendering it general throughout our dock-yards, intitle him to the warmest praise. They may be considered as having conferred an essential benefit on the nation; for nothing could be more likely to prove injurious to the costly fabrics which have so long been the boast and security of our country, than leaving them exposed, during the long period of their construction, to the inclemency of our variable cli-

* Some great mathematical names appear in the list: but this subject seems destined to exhibit the failure, or the precipitancy, of mathematicians. See the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1814, Part II.

mate; owing to which, the seeds of disease were imbibed, and the malady had often commenced before the structure was delivered from the tools of the artizan. Under the present system, the workmen and the work are both protected; and the one may continue his labour undisturbed, and the other proceed in a progressive state of desiccation, in the blaze of July or under the storm and frost of December.

The history of these structures, as given by Mr. Knowles; is both curious and instructive; and the same epithets may with justice be applied to his observations on the comparative advantages of preserving ships under sheds, or at their moorings. The latter is the method universally adopted in this country, but that it has been sometimes successfully abandoned abroad we learn from his own words:

‘The ships of war at Venice for centuries past, and those at Carlsrona since the year 1674, have been kept until wanted on slips, or in docks, protected from the weather by roofs; at the former port, there are sixty-two docks and slips, and at the latter, seven docks roofed over, either for this purpose, or to keep them dry while being built or repaired.

‘At Venice many slips are in a line of continuity, and when they are not occupied by ships, they are used as store-houses, in which are placed converted timber, or other naval stores that are not of a very perishable nature. In the year 1790, there were twenty-two slips of the line under roofs at this port, some of which had been in that situation for 59 years; yet it was stated that their timbers and planks were perfectly sound, although very much shrunk and rent.’

Our limits oblige us to pass over the remainder of this chapter, though it affords much interesting matter concerning the modes of ventilating ships*; and to hasten to the main object of the work, the nature, cure, and prevention of dry-rot: — a subject which, of late years, has attracted much attention, and has been twisted into a variety of shapes to suit the notions or views of the authors by whom it has been treated. Among the most fashionable of these hypotheses, was the strange idea of equivocal generation: a doctrine which, originally derived from the Egyptians, had at one time become extremely popular; and which, when it had been very generally abandoned, was lately revived by Girtanner. His opinions, however, being successfully refuted, the notion was left without an advocate, until it was warmly espoused by

* Should the scheme, which we believe is now in agitation, of having hollow iron-masts for the navy, be carried into effect, it *might* be made the means of very effectual ventilation.

several of the writers on the dry-rot; who, misled by a few mistaken facts, attempted to unravel the difficulties of this obscure subject by referring them to a yet greater mystery. In late years, a more rational opinion has begun to prevail respecting this disease; which, by restoring it to the ordinary laws of nature, permits us to hope that, in the rapid advancement which chemistry promises, the true sources of the decay of vegetable substances will no longer be concealed. The theory to which we here allude has been adopted by the present author, and is described with clearness and precision in the following paragraphs:

‘To merely notice that, in a less advanced state of the knowledge of vegetation, fungi have been considered by some naturalists to belong to the animal, and by others to the mineral kingdom, is all such dreams require or deserve; but later discoveries and inquiries, whilst they have restored to these productions their vegetable origin, have established laws that regulate their propagation, and have given to each species its peculiar nutriment and characteristic habits.

‘Fungi being proved to belong to the vegetable kingdom, and innumerable, but very minute, seeds having been discovered in most of them, for the purpose of their propagation, they are placed in the class cryptogamia, or among those vegetables, the fructification of which is concealed; but supposing that the presence of seed had not been detected, there would be every reason to believe from analogy, that they are dependant upon nearly the same laws as other vegetables; that they are produced either by germs, or seeds, or by both; and whether the seeds are taken up by the sap of the trees, and deposited in the sap-vessels; or whether they are so abundant as to be spread over the whole face of nature; is not necessary to the argument: suffice it to say, that whenever a proper *nidus* is formed, germination and fructification generally follow.

‘When an animal or vegetable body is deprived of life, it no longer belongs to the class of beings which maintain a rank in the economy of nature; the very principles which were the causes of its nutriment then become the means of its decay; and for this purpose, fermentation, the forerunner of putrefaction and decomposition, is the agent. “The aim of nature in exciting fermentation,” says Fourcroy, “is manifestly to render more simple the compounds formed by vegetation and animalization, and to employ them in new combinations of different kinds.” Thus the beautiful harmony which all admire is preserved, and the great law of nature, that the death of one body shall give life to others, fulfilled. When the animal dies, and fermentation takes place, flies deposit their eggs, maggots are formed, and the fleshy part destroyed. When the vegetable body falls, it is eaten by worms of a different kind, or destroyed by fungi; and if in consequence of the employment of art the duration of either is extended, “that slow, but
sure

sure destroyer, Time," at length renders them to their native earth, to serve in their turn for nutriment to other vegetables, designed for the nourishment or convenience of the animal kingdom.'

The phoenix-like principle, here described, seems to pervade all the works of nature. Every where we see animals die, corrupt, and become the fertile sources of an inferior gradation of beings; plants wither and decay, and a fresh vegetable brood spring in youthful vigour from their ruins; and, even among the inanimate tenants of the mineral world, the primary forms of matter, when decomposed by time, serve as the bases of an endless variety of secondary compounds. Fermentation, as it has been just observed, is among organized bodies the precursor of these changes; and we may not only look to this agent, therefore, for many of the phenomena accompanying the destruction of vegetable substances, but we may also consider the means that are efficacious in preventing the one as preservatives against the effects of the other. Thus it is well known that fermentation cannot take place while the temperature is much above or below 90 and 45 degrees of Fahrenheit; and consequently we might reasonably expect that the appearance of the dry-rot would not occur at a heat very distant from these limits; which is said to be agreeable to experience. By similar reasoning, many other circumstances might be pointed out which are either necessary, or essentially contribute, to the generation of this disease; as, for instance, the presence of oxygen, of moisture, and probably of gluten, all of which are known to be requisite in the production of fermentation. Sap, which contains a large proportion of mucilage and sugar, readily ferments, and is on this account a great promoter of decay in timber; and the same may be observed of the alburnum, or sap-wood, which should therefore be carefully removed wherever there is danger of the dry-rot: for it is well known how strongly a very small quantity of a substance, in a state of fermentation, will tend to promote that principle throughout a considerable extent of vegetable matter, with which it may happen to be in contact.

The appearance of cryptogamous plants, on timber which has already fermented, is the true commencement of the dry-rot; and, as the same circumstances which conspired to produce the latter effect are also favourable to this species of vegetation, their growth is commonly rapid. At first they attach themselves only to the surface: but, as their food is drawn from the substance of the timber, the exterior crust is speedily converted into a fine powder, and the immediately adjacent lamina is exposed to be in its turn destroyed. This is not
always,

always, however, the progress of the disease, because examples continually occur in which the vegetation has commenced internally : but this case is merely a modification of the first ; since the numerous fissures, which are to be found in most timber, have here admitted in sufficient abundance the agents whose presence is requisite for germination.

Many persons have imagined that carbonic acid gas is essential to the production of the dry-rot, but the fact has not been sufficiently established by observation to warrant its adoption ; more especially as it militates against theory. We should rather conceive this gas to be a result than a cause of that species of decay ; since, both in the act of fermenting and in the process of vegetation, as long as the latter is performed in the dark, carbonic acid gas is emitted in abundance. Much more probability is to be attached to the commonly received notions that heat, moisture, and imperfect ventilation are the principles which call into activity the latent germs of this formidable disease ; and accordingly it is to these agents that Mr. Knowles has chiefly directed his attention. With respect to the first, he judiciously observes that the primary object should be to maintain, by airing stoves, an equilibrium of heat between the interior of the ship and the external atmosphere ; by which means, the deposition of moisture, that always follows a change of temperature in the air, being avoided, the timber is not exposed to the injurious effects of partial dampness : a point of so much consequence, that even the very apparent advantages of free circulation are not to be obtained without attending to the caution, which Mr. Knowles has in several places urged, of guarding against the humid influence of the surrounding ocean.

The benefit to be derived from totally submersing timber is a question that may be considered as still in a state of trial ; and, on that account, we shall not follow the present author through his interesting detail of the subject, but pass on to the final opinion which he has given respecting the causes of the late improvements in our navy :

‘ In the ships wholly constructed since the peace, (1814,) there has been no instance discovered of the dry-rot : this has been attributed by many persons of observation, and considerable information, to the use of coal-tar. There is no doubt but the article in question has contributed to the preservation of the ships, but their universally sound state is not to be attributed to the use of this tar alone, but to be assigned to a variety of causes ; converting the frames of ships, and laying them apart a considerable time before they are put up, — building them under cover, — their having solid bottoms, — the ventilation afforded by the use of shelf-pieces, —
painting

painting the faying surfaces, — the openings made within board to admit air, — and the care taken of them as to cleanliness, while in a state of ordinary, — have jointly and severally (with the coal-tar) contributed to this effect. It can be asserted with confidence that at no period of our naval history has England possessed a fleet more efficient, or in better condition than at the present time.'

It is gratifying to hear, from a person whose situation gives him the means of accurate information, so favourable a report of the state of our maritime force; and it is not less pleasing to reflect on the very promising appearance which the science of naval architecture has lately assumed in this country:

'Within the last eleven years, (says Mr. Knowles,) a school for naval architecture has been attached to the college at Portsmouth; here the students not only receive an education which fits them to attain the theory of their art, but are also instructed in practical ship-building. This academy has, by instilling education and promoting emulation, already produced several young men of superior talents and attainments; and it is to be hoped that their ardour may not be damped, but that the encouragement will be extended to them which has hitherto, in this country, been withheld from those who have endeavoured to promote the difficult but useful science of constructing ships.'

We sincerely hope that naval architects will arise from this valuable institution, capable of preserving the extraordinary stimulus which the genius of a Seppings has given to this noble art; and that the laudable example, which has been set by the author of the present Inquiry, will not be lost on those whose talents and official character may render them capable of affording information that cannot be obtained from any other source.

ART. VII. *Travels from Vienna, through Lower Hungary; with some Remarks on the State of Vienna during the Congress in the Year 1814.* By Richard Bright, M.D. 4to. pp. 715. 4l. 4s. Edinburgh, Constable and Co.; London, 'Longman and Co.

HUNGARY is so remote from the improved part of Europe, that it is very seldom the direct object of a traveller's survey; and, among those of our countrymen who favour the world with an account of their peregrinations, it has been described by such only as have reluctantly traversed it in proceeding to or returning from the Turkish capital. It contains few remarkable vestiges of antiquity; and, as to modern improvements, it possesses scarcely any that can be interesting to a native of England, France, or Germany. The features of nature

nature, with the exception of the majestic stream of the Danube, are rarely striking; and the subjects of greatest interest to a philosophic observer are the natural fertility of the soil, and the progressive though tardy introduction of improvement.

Such were the objects of consideration with Dr. Bright; who warns his readers not to look in his pages for elaborate political disquisition, or for much of that amusement which is derived from private anecdote. His ambition has been confined to a plain statement of the objects which came under his observation, particularly those of rural economy; the statistical tables and other accounts of the kind inserted in the Appendix, and elsewhere, being taken from the works of German writers. The following is a brief outline of the places and subjects introduced :

Description of Vienna; the Theatres; Public Walks; Collections of Paintings and Antiques; Institutions for Education. Travelling in Hungary; Aspect of the Western Frontier; Tillage; Pasturage; Mines; Machinery; Smelting and Refining. Interior of Hungary; Pesth and Buda; Trade and Manufactures in these Cities, which form conjointly the Capital of Hungary. Form of Government; the Royal Prerogative; the Aristocracy; Revenue; Army. Description of the South-west of Hungary; its Rural Economy; Vine Culture; Incipient Manufactures. Croatia and the Line of Frontier opposite to Turkey. Walachians; their Language, History, and Manners. General Observations.

Appendix.—Statistical Notice of the Fifty-two Counties of Hungary; their Extent, Produce, Towns, and Villages. The Mines of Hungary: the Vineyards of Menes, a Village in the County of Arad, in the South-east of Hungary. Extent and Produce of the Vineyards and Arable Land in Austria. State of the Gypsies in Spain in 1817.

The journal-form being in general followed by Dr. B., the thread of his reasoning is, of course, frequently broken, and the materials belonging to a particular class of subjects are seldom exhibited in a collective form. His book is indeed rather an enumeration of facts related as they occurred to the personal observation of the author, than an arranged statistical account of the country. The latter, however, is the *grand desideratum* with regard to Hungary; and, as that kingdom is so little known, we embrace this opportunity of dedicating to it a few of our pages: combining the information given by Dr. B. with such views and conclusions as our own course of reading and comparison with other countries have suggested.

Extent, Face of the Country, and Climate.—Hungary, like England, is about 370 miles in length, but of a form so much

more approaching to a square that its superficial extent is nearly equal to that of England and Ireland together. It lies between lat. 44. and 49., and contains a population of nearly 7,500,000. Its surface is mountainous in the N. and W., but presents very extensive plains throughout the S. and E.; its products consequently differ very materially; the hilly tract yielding chiefly barley, rye, and oats; while the S. furnishes wheat, maize, and millet, and, in the marshes towards the frontier of Turkey, rice. Its other products are hemp, flax, tobacco, and saffron. The vines of Hungary, particularly those of Tokay, are well known; and few inland-countries possess more extensive or more productive pastures. The climate in the N. is cold, the snow lying for many months on the Carpathian mountains: in the centre and southern part of Hungary, it is warm, and in the sandy districts hot; but the prevailing characteristic, particularly near rivers and marshes, is damp.

Products, Mineral, Vegetable, and Animal. — The mines of Hungary, which have long been celebrated, are not wrought with machinery equal to our own, but with more care and method than we might expect in so unimproved a country. The annual produce of the gold mines is computed at 500,000*l.* or 600,000*l.*; that of silver at nearly 200,000*l.*; and the lead, copper, and iron mines, though less valuable, are not inconsiderable. Schemnitz, Kremnitz, and Nagy-banya are the principal mining towns. In agriculture the Hungarians are extremely backward, their plough being little better than that of the Poles, we might almost say of the Hindus: when the ground has been slightly moved by it, the seed is sown; after which a bundle of sticks or branches is dragged over the surface, the harrow being in general unknown. Equal unskilfulness is apparent in the treatment of their cattle: it is but lately that attention has been given to the improvement of the wool; and both sheep and oxen pass the whole year in the open air, exposed to the heat of summer and the cold of winter. The dwellings even of the shepherds are often little better than a hut, or a pit dug in the ground and covered with branches of trees. While the Hungarian oxen are generally large, the horses, on the other hand, are small, but they are well shaped, and of uncommon spirit and swiftness: it is from among them that the Austrian light cavalry are chiefly supplied. Game of all kinds, deer, stags, wild boars, and wild fowl, are plentiful.

Tortoises are found in great numbers in the marshy parts of Hungary; and, being deemed there as in other countries a delicacy, they are kept in preserves. One of these preserves
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is described by Dr. B. (p. 448.) as comprizing an acre of ground, intersected by trenches and ponds, in which the animals feed, sleep, and pass the time as on the sea-coast. In one of the corners of this inclosure, the author remarked the singular accompaniment of a pen for snails; which in Hungary, as in Germany, are exposed to sale in the markets, and are even in request for the purpose of making broth or soup. He observed that the pen was surrounded with boards two feet in height, the upper edge of which was spiked with nails, an inch long; an impediment which, slight as it is, these insects never attempt to get over.—Another singularity in Hungary is the number of wild boars feeding in the forests in herds: which have lost part of their natural ferocity, from being accustomed to repair every night to receive a portion of food at a certain place where their young are kept. They are, however, descended without intermixture from the true wild breed, and their flesh has all the flavour of the boar in the savage state.

The culture of the silk-worm has been encouraged by government, and an account is given (p. 463.) of some very material improvements made by a cultivator acting under the royal patronage.—The result was a considerable increase of the quantity produced: but the habits of the Hungarian peasantry are ill suited to the peculiar attention, and minute care, that are requisite for an employment so strictly domestic.

Population.—No country possesses a greater variety of different tribes than Hungary, in consequence of its having been, during many ages, the frontier of civilized against barbarous nations, and the scene of long contests; first between the Romans and the wandering tribes of the north, afterward between the Christians and the Turks. Hence the settlement of Roman colonists; subsequently, of Huns, Goths, and Slavonians; and, at a less remote date, of Christian refugees from Turkey, or of pacific emigrants from the interior of Germany. The last are scattered throughout the towns in various parts of the kingdom, but more largely in the west; while the inhabitants of the south and east are supposed from their language to be descendants of the antient Roman colonists. The *aborigines* are probably the Slovacs, a Slavonic race; the Hungarians proper are called Magyars, and are accounted descendants not of the Huns of Attila, but of a tribe from the eastward of the Wolga, which invaded and occupied Hungary in the 9th century; they are in general a comely and spirited race, forming the chief part of the land-holders, agriculturists, and

shepherds of the kingdom, but seldom following mechanical or sedentary employments.

If the population of France be more agricultural and less manufacturing than that of England, the degree of difference is still greater in the case of Hungary; where more than three-fourths of the nation live in villages, hamlets, or the open country. Even among mechanics, and other occupants of large towns, a mixture of agricultural employment may be traced: for their labours in the line of their business are very limited, being in a great measure confined to implements of necessity; the occupations connected with ornament and luxury being as yet only in their commencement in Hungary.

Commerce, Revenue, and Military Establishments.—The commerce of Hungary is still in a very early stage; one cause of which is the unfortunate circumstance that the great rivers run in a direction opposite to the natural course of trade, viz. towards the poor and thinly peopled districts of Turkey, instead of the improved countries in the west of Europe. The frequency of the plague in Turkey is a farther check to the intercourse with that country; to which we may add that the roads of Hungary are far from good, and that canals are entirely unknown. The chief exports are corn, wool, tobacco, and wine: the imports, colonial produce and the finer manufactures, the Hungarian fabrics being confined to coarse woollen and linen, some hardware articles of the first necessity, and the tanning of leather. Most of the mechanics are Germans. The revenue of Hungary is derived partly from the crown lands, and partly from taxes voted by the Diet, viz. on land, cattle, &c.; also from the monopoly of salt, the post-office, lotteries, and the customs on imports and exports. The standing army, in time of peace, numbers between 50 and 60,000 men; the recruiting takes place either by sending parties through the country, or by compulsory enlistment: the *insurrectio* is an extraordinary levy in a season of emergency, such as the invasions of Austria by the French in 1800 and 1809. A long line of frontier, extending throughout the south of Hungary opposite to the confines of Turkey, is exempt from taxes, on condition of all the males able to bear arms being liable to military service.

Religion, Language, and Education.—With regard to religion, the inhabitants of Hungary, including their neighbours, the Slavonians and Croats, may be thus divided: Catholics, 4,000,000; Protestants, 2,000,000; followers of the Greek church, 2,500,000; Jews, 80,000. The Protestants in Hungary were long exposed to the same illiberal treatment as in the

the other states of the house of Austria: but, since the early part of the reign of the philosophic Joseph II., about the year 1780, they have enjoyed complete toleration, and eligibility to public offices. Each parish, whether Catholic or Protestant, has or is enjoined to have its school, and the towns have their *gymnasia* or schools on a larger plan; still education is very rudely conducted; there being in the whole kingdom only one university (Pesth), very few public libraries, and scarcely one academy of arts and sciences. As to language, each of the different tribes composing the population of Hungary having retained its own dialect, or rather distinct language, it has long been necessary to resort to a common medium of communication; for which purpose Latin is adopted by all the well-educated, and even by some of the inferior ranks; and it was till lately the sole medium of literary composition.

Constitution. — Powerful as is the aristocracy in Hungary, the King has likewise a very ample prerogative. Three centuries have passed since the regal title has been united with that of Emperor of Germany, or Austria; and the executive government in Hungary is administered by a council of state resident at Buda, and in correspondence with the chancery at Vienna. The officers of state are the Palatine of Hungary, who is now generally the same person as the Viceroy; the Chief Justice, or *Judex curiæ regiæ*; the *Bannus*, or governor of the frontier-provinces to the southward; and the President of the Court of Exchequer. The nobility consist of the magnates or *grandeës*, who, like the peers of England and France, sit in the Diet by hereditary right; and of the inferior nobles, who are represented by deputies, and correspond to our landed gentry: the former scarcely amount to 200, while the latter are extremely numerous. In short, the aggregate of noblesse or gentry in this kingdom, comprizing their families, and including the clergy, is fully 300,000. The distinction is not merely honorary, for they alone have an inherent right to possess land or exercise jurisdiction over the peasants; and they have also the invidious privilege of exemption from several taxes. The inhabitants of the free towns in Hungary enjoy various immunities, the enumeration of which reminds an English reader of the grants obtained in the 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries by our boroughs from our sovereigns: they can be cited before none but their own courts, are eligible to offices civil and military, and exempt from tolls; they elect their own magistrates, send deputies to the Diet, and are intitled to hold property in land and villages. The Diet or Parliament of Hungary is composed of two Chambers, — the

peers and prelates in the one, — the representatives of the gentry and of boroughs in the other. The deputies are about 500 in number, and the two houses form in all about 700; they must by law meet at least once in five years, but they are in fact convoked much oftener: the election of a Palatine, the demand of an extra levy of men, or the imposition of new taxes, requiring an assemblage of the Diet. The peasantry, by far the most numerous portion of the population, are not represented; and, like our vassals in the feudal ages, they are liable to much oppression, viz. the payment of taxes, the quartering of soldiers, and compulsory enlistment: to which is to be added the furnishing of horses and other means of conveyance to all travellers through this country, who are provided with an official order. Denied the property of land by a legal tenure, they hold it as a cession by covenanting to give a certain number of days' work, generally about three months in the year, to the landlord.

We select, as one of the most interesting passages of the book, Dr. B.'s description of the capital of Hungary, and of the fair held there annually in the month of April, the season of his visit:

'Pesth and Buda (or, as it is otherwise called, Ofen,) form almost one city, which is the capital of Hungary. They are separated by the Danube, here seen in all its majesty; over which is an easy communication by a bridge formed of forty-seven large boats, united by chains and covered with planks. The length of the bridge is nearly three hundred yards, and it is so constructed that two or three boats, with their planks and railings, may at any time be removed; and every morning and evening, at stated hours, the vessels and the rafts of timber which navigate or float down the Danube, are permitted to pass. Buda, the seat of the Hungarian government, and the residence of the Palatine, contains 30,000 inhabitants. Its situation is on the right bank of the Danube, commanding and majestic. The extensive fortress, which occupies a high rock, contains the palaces of the Palatine, and of several Hungarian nobles, the public arsenal and theatre, with many churches and streets, forming within itself a complete town. Round the foot of this rock, and along the side of the river, runs a street, while others with gardens surround it in different directions, and clothe the side of a second rocky eminence called the Blocksberg, which hangs over the river at a short distance to the south, and on which the new observatory is constructed.

'Pesth, the *Transacincum* of the Romans, occupies the left bank of the river. It is the seat of commerce, and contains nearly 33,000 inhabitants. It is built upon a plain where it extends itself more and more every day, and is one of the very few towns upon the Continent which seems to have suffered little during the late periods of disturbance. It may be divided into the Old and New Town, of

of which the latter has by far the most regularity in its structure. In many different parts of the town are seen large buildings, facing to the streets, entered by covered gateways, and known by the name of the nobleman to whom they belong, which is often inscribed above the chief entrance. The streets were at this time busy, filled with a motley crowd, chiefly of dealers and peasants, some in their holiday dresses, but the greater part wrapt in thick cloaks. The native merchants sat smoking at their shop-doors, a bale of tobacco on this side, a huge tube of caviare upon the other: the baker, with a light basket on his shoulders, trotted briskly from street to street, announcing his approach by the shrill sound of a small wooden trumpet; and Jews, Armenians, and Turks, each in the costume of their country, formed themselves promiscuously into parties.

‘As it was the period of the great Spring-fair, I had an opportunity of forming some idea, while at Pesth, of the mode in which trade is conducted in Hungary. The fair was held in a large open space, within the town, where a great quantity of manufactured goods, of various kinds, were exposed to sale. Almost the whole of these, however, were brought from Vienna, for no country in Europe is perhaps less indebted to her own manufactures than Hungary. An extension of the market, where agricultural produce, the true riches of the country, was chiefly seen, occupied some streets in the suburbs. The Greeks, and a few Turkish merchants, had taken up their stations in different parts, and the whole presented a picture of that bartering traffic which marks the early stages of commercial intercourse. The manner in which the Hungarian peasant conducts himself in the sale of his produce is, when compared to that of the Slavonian, the German, and the Jew, with whom he is surrounded, remarkable and interesting. The Slavonian enlarges on the excellence and cheapness of his ware, with palpable and suspicious eagerness. The German dresses out his merchandise, turns it from one side to the other, and presents himself to the purchasers with a commanding self-sufficiency. The Jew swears with heart and soul that he will injure no man;—and the Raitzer is stern, silent, and unaccommodating: but, on that account, his characteristic and fiery eye pleads with the greater eloquence. The Hungarian alone keeps himself perfectly passive in his dealings. He allows his goods to be inspected,—answers shortly and directly to the question, and attempts not to impose either by words or artifice. You perceive by his embarrassment that he is unaccustomed to low arts,—his good temper evidently counteracts the feeling of poverty, which is therefore borne with ease and content.’

Though Dr. B.'s personal inspection extended only to the western and central part of Hungary, his book contains an account of the whole country; comprizing the extensive but thinly peopled districts in the south and east. His style is plain and unaffected, but frequently deficient both in neatness and brevity; and the information given is valuable for its novelty

and its accuracy, but the mode of conveying it exhibits a great want of finish, and an unacquaintance, on the part of the author, with the precautions that are indispensable to render a book clear and attractive. What apology can well be made for perplexing the general reader with foreign weights and measures, when it would have been a matter of so little difficulty to reduce them to the English standard? How tantalizing, also, is it to those who expect amusement from a narrative of travels, to read in the table of contents such a notice as 'An Account of the Wild Boy discovered near Neusiedler See,' and, on turning to the page pointed out, to find it given in German, a language not intelligible to one in twenty of the readers? In this, as in so many other instances, our regret is that Dr. B.'s information has not been given to the public in a clear, concise, and attractive form; separating from the text all that was of secondary importance, and putting under comprehensive heads a variety of those facts and observations which are now scattered throughout the volume. The index is indeed a kind of corrective to this want of connection, but is evidently not sufficient; and it is much better for an author, whose mind may be said to be impregnated with the contents of his book, to submit to some additional trouble in collecting, condensing, and re-casting his materials, than to leave that ungracious task to the reader. If the journal-form is to be retained on the ground of the personal interest which it excites, why should details, necessarily of great length, be offered to the public in the shape of an expensive quarto: when every useful purpose might have been answered, and a more general circulation have been obtained, by giving the printed matter in a couple of octavo volumes, and adding the maps and plates in a separate form, the whole at half the price now demanded? We cannot, however, conclude without adding that the appendages to which we allude, viz. the maps and plates, are of considerable utility: they consist first of a map of Hungary alone, followed by a map of Hungary, Transylvania, and the surrounding countries. In the next place, each chapter is ushered in by a *vignette*, conveying an idea of the tools, the dwellings, and the rustic assemblages of the inhabitants; and distributed throughout the volume are ten engravings of larger size, and finer execution, representing towns, mine-works, and picturesque scenery.

ART. VIII. Mr. Fraser's *Journal of a Tour through the Himāla Mountains.*

[*Art. concluded from p. 238.*]

RESUMING our account of this curious tour through a region so little known, we come to the remark that here are no horses, of which indeed the country would not admit the use; and sheep, Mr. Fraser thinks, are not numerous; although, like the Highlands of Scotland, these Indian hills appear to be peculiarly favourable for breeding and grazing them. The inhabitants here, and also near the plains, are Hindoos; as their language, religious rites, and the general tone of their customs and prejudices, will testify. For a considerable way into the hills, their language is a corrupted dialect of the Hindoostanee: more northward it becomes so impure and mixed with foreign tongues as to be unintelligible to a low countryman. Temples to innumerable divinities are found on every hill, and at every turn of the road: 'there is not a Teeba or pinnacle that is not topped with a heap of stones; a single pillar or little hut, to which the Paharia turns with mysterious solemnity, and prostrating himself prays to the spirit of the place.' That the people are very superstitious is most probable, but these heaps of stones and the reverence paid to them Mr. Fraser himself explains in the very next page:

'They burn their dead, carrying them to the heights of hills, and commonly erect a pile of stones, or place a large stone on end, and plant sticks with rags on them, to mark the spot sacred to the memory of the deceased.

'It is not very common for women to burn themselves with the body of their deceased husbands: but it does sometimes happen, in case of the death of persons of consequence. Thus, at the death of the late Rajah of Bischur, twenty-two persons of both sexes burnt themselves along with his body; of these, twelve were females, and three Ranees; one or two of his wuzzeers, and his first chobedâr, were also among the number: even at the death of some of the hill soldiers near Nahn, their wives burnt themselves on their bodies.'

The priesthood here flourish luxuriantly: not only do all the various orders of Hindoo mendicants abound, but in every purgunnah whole villages are inhabited entirely by Brahmins, Gosseins, Sunyassees, Jogeas, &c., who subsist on the superstitious charity of the public; or who, having abjured their vow of celibacy, have married and settled. The people of all castes feed not merely on corn, vegetables, and milk, but eat every species of fish and flesh, except that of the cow: while the

the Brahmins themselves, and the Raajepoots, who are the men of rank, likewise eat sheep, goats, game, &c. No fowls appear to have been domesticated. The internal regulation of the villages resembles the antient patriarchal form of government. Every one contains a person intitled a Seānā, to whom disputes are referred; who, of course, possesses great influence; and who also makes the collection of tribute for government, and is in some degree considered as responsible for the conduct of the villagers. The head of a family has an arbitrary right over each of its members; their personal liberty being entirely at his disposal, and even their lives also, with very little appeal; and the number of slaves brought from the hills, who are to be seen in native families in Hindoostan, shew that this slave-traffic is extensive. The Hindoos, however, are not usually cruel masters; on the contrary, we are told, their slaves live happily, and often become so attached as to lose all wish to quit their owners. The British government has done all that it can in the provinces under its authority to check this execrable trade, so bad at the very best; publicly prohibiting the purchase of slaves, and declaring all those to be free who have been bought subsequently to a certain date: a regulation which has been enforced, liberty having always been given to slaves so purchased, on application to the proper authorities. The Ghoorkas seized and sold these poor mountaineers in great numbers: 'in the course of twelve years, two lacs of people are said to have been thus disposed of.' The Zemindars, — a term not here applied as in the low country to the chief land-holders, but used to designate the whole class of cultivators, — being frequently unable, in consequence of the seizure of their crops for military purposes, to pay their quota of tribute, the Ghoorkas would often compel a wretched Zemindar to give up one of his children as a commutation; and instances are said to have occurred, in which every one of the children of a family has been thus in succession torn away from its relatives. The distress of the parents, too, their own pressure for food, has sometimes driven them to sell one child for the sustenance of the remainder: but the inhabitants of Bischur deny that they ever dispose of their children:

'The females of this state are spoken of as excelling those of the other states in beauty, and accordingly slaves of this nation are sought after, a temptation probably not to be resisted; and in a country surrounded by states that practise such a custom, it is not likely that it should. Indeed, from the result of some inquiries, and the manner in which some offers which we made for experiment were received, I have no doubt that all they wish is, that

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it should not be believed that they are guilty of what nature must tell every one is a disgraceful and cruel crime.

'The prices of such slaves vary greatly, and depend on many circumstances; the age, beauty, or strength of the person to be sold; the necessity and distance from market of the seller. Far in the hills, and remote from the chief marts for such traffic, the price will have, and I believe has reference to that which is given by a Zemindar for a wife; contemplating that the parent is to be totally deprived of any future intercourse with his child, as well as from the benefit of his or her labour, from twenty to fifty rupees will probably be the extent of the demand in such situations.'

At the usual places for such purchases in the vicinity of the plains, from 50 to 150 or even 200 rupees are commonly given for a promising slave of either sex, not quite a child, even when extraordinary beauty does not fix on them an extrinsic value.

Passing through the small states of Bulsum and Cotegooroo, we proceed northward to Bischur, where the admixture of Tartar manners and customs becomes more palpable. Speaking of the tolerant nature of the Hindoo religion, 'how unlike,' exclaims Mr. Fraser, 'to the savage, exterminating creed of the Mahometans!' It is certainly not the least remarkable feature of the Hindoo religion that its professors, far from persecuting those of a different persuasion, are even jealous of admitting proselytes. They believe all religions to be equally acceptable to the Supreme Being; assigning as a reason that, if the Author of the universe preferred one to another, it would have been impossible for any other to have prevailed than that which he approved. Every religion, therefore, they conclude to be adapted to the country in which it is established; and all in their original purity they conceive to be alike acceptable. They have a great respect for the holy places, usages, and gods of other religions. Mr. Fraser met with an old Hindoo who had a brass-box of curious fashion hung round his neck; which, with reluctance, the old man consented to have examined, because it contained his god, Thakoor. At last he opened it, and took from it two figures; one was Lama, and the other a small Chinese figure painted on porcelain, and wrapped up in a piece of yellow silk; both of which he had received from the grand Lama at Lhassa, whither he had, many years since, gone on a pilgrimage. It is also not uncommon to see Hindoos prostrating themselves at the splendid monuments of Moslem faith, or paying equal reverence to a Christian church. 'How unlike the savage, exterminating creed of the Mahometans!' This is somewhat hastily penned. The subversion of the
Roman

Roman power in Spain by the Goths and Vandals was succeeded by the invasion of the Moors from Africa, who introduced the Mohammedan religion, with the Arabic language and the manners of the East. The Christians did not recover their dominion in Spain during eight hundred years : but, on its release from the Mohammedan yoke, their antient laws and customs were found to have been preserved inviolate, amid the shock of every revolution : even those Christians who submitted to the Moorish conquerors were allowed to retain their religion, their laws concerning private property, their forms of administering justice, and their mode of levying taxes. The followers of Mohammed, says Dr. Robertson, (Charles V. vol. i. p. 176.)—differing a good deal from Mr. Fraser,—are the only enthusiasts who have united the spirit of toleration with zeal for making proselytes ; and who, at the same time that they took arms to propagate the doctrine of their prophet, permitted such as would not embrace it to adhere to their own tenets, and practise their own rites.

Rampore is the capital of the state of Bischur : it was once a flourishing town, being the *entrepôt* for merchandise brought by the traders of Hindoostan, and for the produce of Cachemire, Bootan, &c. &c. The Ghoorkas laid it waste ; the Rajah, with his mother and attendants, flying for safety to the recesses of Kunawur, and leaving the riches of their capital a prey to the conquerors. The houses are now chiefly in ruins ; and the bazar, which was formerly a tolerable street, with good shops and houses, at present contains only the booths of a few poor Bunyans, bespeaking wretchedness and poverty. It is a place of considerable sanctity, possessing several temples of tolerable construction, dedicated to Hindoo deities. Brahmins and a host of inferior priesthood officiate at these various shrines, and are the only people who seem to have escaped the general desolation ; their houses being neat and comfortable, and their persons and circumstances thriving. It has likewise two royal residences, built with considerable elegance, and both very richly decorated with carved work in wood, executed with great beauty and precision. The fabrication of woollen cloths, and a small quantity of shawl-wool, imported from Bootan, are the chief and almost only manufacture of Bischur ; in which, however, the people excel the inhabitants of all the countries between the Sutlej and Alaknunda. The merchants of Kunawur are celebrated for their integrity, and have extended their speculations into the neighbouring Chinese provinces, as well as into various towns, cities, and districts, both north and south.

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The xixth and xxth chapters contain some geographical and geological remarks on the great Himālayan range, on the course of the Sutlej, and on various routes and passes through the mountains. To follow Mr. Fraser in these inquiries would occupy greater space than we can afford, and would preclude us also from noticing some other matters which, probably, may have a more general interest. The direction of this range, from the banks of the Burravramputra to Kumaon, is from S.S.E. to N.N.W., and the exposures to the southward are invariably the least wooded and the least precipitous. The south is as plentifully watered as the north, but the trees produced on it have a very inferior foliage. The destructibility of the rock on the northern exposure, however, is much more rapid, and of course the formation of soil is more abundant, so that every ravine and even the steepest precipices are covered with noble forests; while the rock to the south, denuded of soil by heavy rains, is black and barren. Concerning the elevation of these mountains, we have had such various calculations from Mr. Colebrook, Captains Hodgson and Webb, M. Humboldt, and others, that little confidence can be placed on them. At an elevation of 11,680 feet above Calcutta, Captain Webb found the surface covered with very rich vegetation, as high as the knee; extensive beds of strawberries in full flower; and currant bushes profusely blossoming in a rich soil, surrounded by a noble forest of pine, oak, and rhododendrons. Ascending a thousand feet higher, he met with similar appearances, and the luxuriance of vegetation was unabated. Captain Webb considered the limit of forest-wood to be at least as high as 12,300 feet, and the *inferior* limit of perpetual congelation on the Himāla mountains to be at least 13,500 feet above the level of Calcutta. Mr. Fraser proposes to fix the point of *inferior* congelation somewhere between 15 and 16,000 feet, but observes that even at a still higher elevation he experienced no feeling of frostiness in the air; indeed the snow was moist, and a small drizzling rain was falling around. Mr. Colebrook estimated the height of Dhawlagirree, which is the loftiest peak that has come under observation, at 26,862 feet above the level of the sea, and that of Jumnotree at 25,500: but there is great reason to doubt his accuracy; and Mr. Fraser is rather disposed to consider that the loftiest peaks of these snowy mountains range from 18 to 23,000 feet above the level of the sea.

Leaving Rampore, the travellers now bend their painful steps to the river Jumna, and here for the first time we find noticed the prevalence of the goitre: Mr. Fraser observing,

'it may be too much, perhaps, to say that every second person we saw was thus diseased, but the sufferers were certainly very numerous.' The natives say it is hereditary: possibly, but its existence in very young children is no proof of it: the fact is that it is endemic. Various have been the theories of nosologists as to the cause of this enlargement of the parotid glands, accompanied as it very frequently is with perfect idiocy, although Mr. Fraser does not hint at having observed such an effect here. Various, likewise, have been the remedies suggested: but that which has been adopted by the bold Paharian surgeons is the very last that we should have expected, and our astonishment is not less excited by their temerity than their success. They extirpate the tumour in its early stage by the knife: 'we saw some persons who had the scars on their throats resulting from this mode of cure, which had in these instances been completely successful.' Wounds and hurts of all kinds are cured in the simplest manner, assisted by the natural low habit of body of the people in general, which resembles that of all Hindoostan. They recover, says Mr. F., from the severest wounds with scarcely any attention, dressing them with turmeric, and a few simple ingredients formed into a poultice, which promotes a gentle healing suppuration. In habits which seldom tend to fever, it is a mockery of art to see how wounds occasioned by the amputation of limbs, lopped off in the most summary and savage way, are cured by this simple process, while the patient seems to suffer very little.—Captain Cook made precisely the same remark with regard to the South Sea islanders.

Mr. Fraser's deficient knowledge in the various branches of natural history, already mentioned, disables him from giving us much information concerning the plants which grow among these hills, or the animals which inhabit them, except those of the most common appearance. The existence of the tyger seems very doubtful: but various of the feline species find shelter among the recesses of the rocks; and bears, wild hogs, monkeys of many varieties, and deer, are very numerous. That beautiful and valuable animal, the musk-deer, is occasionally seen, but it keeps entirely to the most inaccessible and remote heights, among rocks and forests that defy the foot of man. They cannot endure heat; and several young deer, which were presented to the travellers, invariably perished after having been exposed for a few days to the warmth of a lower region. The musk is contained in a small bag near the navel, and is cut from the animal while yet alive, lest it should be absorbed into the system. It is highly prized as a medicine, as well as a perfume; and it is smoked

smoked by the luxurious debauchees in hookahs, and invariably forms a part of the offering presented by men of rank to their superiors. A breed of rams occurs here, with four and even six horns. The natives seem to attach a sacred and mysterious virtue to the horns of animals, which are suspended over the doors of their temples, &c.; they are likewise placed over the graves and tombs of those who are accounted to have led lives of peculiar sanctity. Among birds, are to be found varieties of the pheasant and partridge, and dunghill fowls in their wild state; with kites and hawks of all sizes and descriptions. No eagles were seen; nor serpents. Bees are extensively cultivated, and the natives have a method of obtaining the honey without destroying the insect.

Having reached the banks of the Jumna, Mr. Fraser resolved to trace it to its source; which he effected with no little difficulty and danger, and gained at length the sacred temple of the goddess at Jumnotree, amid the lofty recesses of the snow-capped mountain, Bundurpouch. At a village called Coopera, once a populous place but now fallen into decay, is a temple to Vischnû, under the name of Nag-Rajah: when our travellers arrived there, the inhabitants were preparing to perform the annual ceremony of carrying the image, with songs and dances, to be bathed in the stream. The summit of Bundurpouch is formed by four inaccessible peaks, and in the cavity contained between them, is a reputed lake of peculiar sanctity, which no one has ever seen, because no person has even attempted to ascend these frightful and forbidding barriers. The goddess, indeed, has prohibited any mortal from passing that spot appointed for her worship. A Faqueer, it seems, once lost his way in attempting to reach Jumnotree, and was ascending the mountain till he reached the snow, when he heard a voice inquiring what he wanted? On his answering, a mass of snow detached itself from the side of the hill, and the voice desired him to worship where this snow stopped, for that Jumna was not to be too closely followed in her recesses. He was also ordered to publish this, and return no more under the penalty of death. The existence of such a lake, therefore, is merely a matter of mythological faith and tradition.

‘ The annual ceremony of carrying the images of their gods to wash in the sacred stream of the Jumna is (it appears) one of much solemnity among the inhabitants of this neighbourhood; and the concourse of people here assembled has been busily engaged, and continues to be fully occupied in doing honour to it. They dance to the sound of strange music, and intoxicate themselves with a sort of vile spirit, brewed here from grain and particular roots,
some-

sometimes, it is said, sharpened by pepper. The dance is most grotesque and savage: a multitude of men taking hands, sometimes in a circle, sometimes in line, beating time with their feet, bend with one accord, first nearly to the earth with their faces, then backwards, and then sidewise, with various wild contortions. These, and their uncouth dress of black and grey blankets, give a peculiar air of brutal ferocity to the assemblage. The men dance all day, and in the evening they are joined by the women, who mix indiscriminately with them, and keep up dancing and intoxication till the night is far advanced. They continue this frantic kind of worship for several days; and, in truth, it is much in unison with their general manners and habits,—savage and inconsistent. At a place so sacred, the residence of so many holy Brahmins, and the resort of so many pious pilgrims, we might expect to find a strict attention to the forms of religion, and a scrupulous observance of the privations and austerities enjoined by it. So far, however, is this from the truth, that much is met with, shocking even to those Hindoos who are least bigoted.

At a small distance from the sacred source of the Jumna, on the east of a steep and rugged crag, is a spot on which a shrine is dedicated to Bhyramjee, a subordinate divinity who announces the approach of all who come to worship the goddess herself. His temple is constructed of only a few loose stones about three feet high, and it contained no image, but a number of pieces of iron, with one or more points, plain or twisted. A small brass canopy hung from the centre, with a brass lamp, and a small bell, likewise of brass, which is rung during worship. Here the officiating Brahmin said a long prayer, ringing the bell and offering flowers, which were presented by all the attendant worshippers, who thus propitiated the deity in favour of the strangers. The descent from this spot to the bed of the river is exceedingly difficult and dangerous; and in crossing and recrossing it, which was necessary to reach Jumnotree, the coldness of the stream was so intense as almost to benumb the joints: every plunge was felt like a cut to the bone. The spot which obtains the name of Jumnotree is somewhat below a small basin, where various small streams unite, formed by the melting of the snow above. This branch of the Jumna has several sources, and numerous hot sulphureous springs; some of which are of great sanctity. One, of considerable size, rises in a pool of the cold river-water, and renders it milk-warm. Here the necessary ablutions were performed, and the Pundit said prayers and received his dues;—here also, says Mr. F., ‘I bathed, was prayed over, and submitted to be marked by the sacred mud of the hot springs, in the forehead, like the rest,’ having approached the spot barefooted.

From Jumnotree, our adventurous traveller resolved to strike across more perilous and still loftier mountains, and visit Gungotree, the holiest of holies, the source of the most sacred branch of the Ganges. 'Here, all is mythological if not holy ground. Here, Mahadeo sits enthroned in clouds and mist, amid rocks that defy the approach of living thing, and snows that make desolation more awful. Gods, goddesses, and saints, here continually adore him at mysterious distance, and you traverse their familiar haunts.' Although Gungotree is the most sacred shrine, however, it is much less frequented than Buddrīnāth, whither pilgrims flock in crowds who are appalled at the remoteness and danger of the former. At Buddrīnāth are temples of considerable extent, to which are attached great riches and splendor, and consequently priests and officials in abundance. A very curious and entertaining extract is given from the journey thither of Captains Webb, Hearsay, and Raper; who learned that, in the year when they visited this sanctuary, nearly fifty thousand fakirs had paid their devotions to the idol from the remotest quarters of India. — The length, however, to which we have already extended this article must form our apology for declining to accompany any of these travellers in their pilgrimage; although the account of it is by no means the least amusing part of the volume before us. Mr. Fraser was strongly dissuaded from his attempt by an assurance that, in crossing the intervening hills, all travellers are so much affected by a poison in the air that they become senseless, lie down, and are incapable of motion; and the people attribute this phenomenon to the powerful perfume of myriads of flowers in the small vallies, and on the hill-sides. In fact, the elevation was so great as to produce a degree of rarefaction of the air which was excessively distressing. The symptoms were various: some of the party being affected with violent head-ache; others with severe pains in the chest, and oppression: some with sickness and vomiting; many were overcome with heaviness, and fell asleep while walking along; and no one was exempt from its influence. It was true enough, also, that a great profusion of flowers appeared in these lofty regions, but the greater part of them had no smell.

After having performed the preliminary ablutions, and reached the temple of the goddess, Gunga, in the centre of the Himālā mountains, on which no European foot had ever trodden, Mr. Fraser and his companions descended from these regions of the supernal deities, and returned in safety to Serampore. Accustomed to the society of immortals, Mr. Fraser seems always to have considered that a British officer among

Paharias was a god among mortals, and that oblations were to be presented to him wherever he appeared : so that, when they did not pour in quite so fast as might be desirable, the character of these mountaineers is at once described as every thing that is ungrateful, suspicious, cunning, and ungenerous. Perhaps "An Account of the European Travellers who penetrated the Himālayān Mountains, by one of the Coolies who attended the march of the Intruders," might represent the character of both parties in a different light. — An excellent map accompanies this work, and a volume of plates may be had for five-and-twenty guineas.

ART. IX. *Don Juan*, Cantos III, IV, and V. 8vo. 9s. 6d. Boards. Printed by Davison. 1821.

TWO years ago, (vol. lxxxix. p. 309.) *Don Juan* was sufficiently introduced to our readers, his qualities made known, his adventures recorded, and the probable complexion of his future life pointed out, if the poet and the public should will its prolongation. On this point, the general wish seemed to be in the negative, and we understood that this opinion would be influential on the poet himself. *Don Juan*, indeed, was considered as possessing very powerful attractions, but not as being correct enough for association in good company; and in particular the masters of families were very little inclined to recommend him to their wives and daughters, over whom the young man seemed qualified and disposed to exercise more influence than husbands and fathers could regard as desirable, when they contemplated the results of his fascination.

In plain terms, we conceived that we were not to behold any additional cantos of this poem; and the author of it now acknowledges that he was apprized of the prevailing sentiment against it. He does not, however, appear willing to yield to any such suggestion, farther than by a compromise: that is, he resolves to continue to write, but promises to write more circumspectly, though he should in that case write less wittily. With a sly and not unjust allusion to predecessors, who possessed also a *free and easy* pen, he exclaims :

‘ Here I might enter on a chaste description,
 Having withstood temptation in my youth,
 But hear that several people take exception
 At the first two books having too much truth ;
 Therefore I'll make *Don Juan* leave the ship soon,
 Because the publisher declares, in sooth,
 Through needles' eyes it easier for the camel is
 To pass, than those two cantos into families.

'Tis all the same to me; I'm fond of yielding,
And therefore leave them to the purer page
Of Smollet, Prior, Ariosto, Fielding,
Who say strange things for so correct an age;
I once had great alacrity in wielding
My pen, and liked poetic war to wage,
And recollect the time when all this cant
Would have provoked remarks which now it shan't.

This "self-denying ordinance" has certainly been in part observed by the poet, but we shall not predict that his success in this respect will be deemed complete; and in the place of one stanza we find a *blank*, which does not *say much* for the quality of the absentee:—but, moreover, Lord Byron (whom we may still name as the author, though he here continues to write anonymously,) now makes his narration much too narrative, and his excursions much too excursive; and he will scarcely induce his readers to be pleased with digressions that become tiresome, by admitting that he is conscious of his wandering habits, and cannot refrain from them.

But let me to my story: I must own,
If I have any fault, it is digression;
Leaving my people to proceed alone,
While I soliloquize beyond expression. —
But I'm digressing; what on earth has Nero,
Or any such like sovereign buffoons,
To do with the transactions of my hero,
More than such madmen's fellow man — the moon's?
Sure my invention must be down at zero,
And I grown one of many "wooden spoons"
Of verse (the name with which we Cantabs please
To dub the last of honours in degrees.)

We must openly acknowledge, in our turn, that, throughout the three cantos before us, we make so little progress in event, that we scarcely know where we are or what we are doing, and feel no great solicitude about the matter. *Interest*, therefore, a primary consideration in these cases, is almost entirely sacrificed; and all the hold on its readers which the tale maintains is derived from occasional passages of beauty, and striking thoughts, without which no poem by Lord Byron can appear.

At the end of the first two cantos, Juan was left happy in the love of the beautiful and artless Haidée, daughter of a pirate who was absent on his nefarious business. In the three cantos now published, we read of the unexpected return of this barbarian, old Lambro; who, being not much pleased with the intercourse which he detects between the lovers,

sends Juan, severely wounded in resisting the order, aboard his ship; *whereupon*, Haidée pines "even unto death." The youth is conveyed to Constantinople, and sold as a slave: being bought by an eunuch for the particular service of the Sultana, who had chanced to see him in the street, and of course became enamoured of him.—These few events form the whole *business* of the present volume; at the close of which we are told,

' Thus far our Chronicle; and now we pause,
Though not for want of matter; but 'tis time,
According to the ancient epic laws,
To slacken sail, and anchor with our rhyme.
Let this fifth canto meet with due applause,
The sixth shall have a touch of the sublime;
Meanwhile, as Homer sometimes sleeps, perhaps
You'll pardon to my muse a few short naps.'

This 'Chronicle,' then, may be as long as any of the Chronicles of old, if the public please; and if they *do* please, why so be it: but we will take a leaf out of the conscientious Lord Chancellor's book, and *doubt*. We are not exactly disposed to say, "*quorsum hæc tam putida tendunt?*" but we *are* disposed to ask what benefit can accrue to the reader of a series of *love-intrigues*, — not the worship of the *casta Venus*, — not the pure love which God and nature ordain and sanctify, — but the mere repetition of sensual attachment and "casual fruition," — varied in attendant circumstances, but still the same in origin, termination, and tendency? Yet such has hitherto been, and such apparently will continue to be, the whole employment of Don Juan.

We must select a few passages, as much detached and as harmless as we can find them.

The unwelcome arrival of old Lambro, already mentioned, takes place when Haidée, having supposed him to be dead, was celebrating by a feast her own accession to estate and her blissful union with Juan. A professional poet formed a part of the assemblage, and is made to sing this spirited and feeling hymn in praise of national freedom and glory:

' The isles of Greece, the isles of Greece!
Where burning Sappho loved and sung,
Where grew the arts of war and peace, —
Where Delos rose, and Phœbus sprung!
Eternal summer gilds them yet,
But all, except their sun, is set.
' The Scian and the Teian muse,
The hero's harp, the lover's lute,

Ha—

- Have found the fame your shores refuse;
Their place of birth alone is mute
To sounds which echo further west
Than your sires' "Islands of the Blest."
- * The mountains look on Marathon —
And Marathon looks on the sea;
And musing there an hour alone,
I dream'd that Greece might still be free;
For standing on the Persian's grave,
I could not deem myself a slave.
- * A king sate on the rocky brow
Which looks o'er sea-born Salamis;
And ships, by thousands, lay below,
And men in nations; — all were his!
He counted them at break of day —
And when the sun set where were they?
- * And where are they? and where art thou,
My country? On thy voiceless shore
The heroic lay is tuneless now —
The heroic bosom beats no more!
And must thy lyre, so long divine,
Degenerate into hands like mine?
- * 'Tis something, in the dearth of fame,
Though link'd among a fetter'd race,
To feel at least a patriot's shame,
Even as I sing, suffuse my face;
For what is left the poet here?
For Greeks a blush — for Greece a tear.
- * Must we but weep o'er days more blest?
Must we but blush? — Our fathers' blood
Earth! render back from out thy breast
A remnant of our Spartan dead!
Of the three hundred grant but three,
To make a new Thermopylæ!
- * What, silent still? and silent all?
Ah! no; — the voices of the dead
Sound like a distant torrent's fall,
And answer, "Let one living head,
But one arise, — we come, we come!"
'Tis but the living who are dumb.
- * In vain — in vain: strike other chords;
Fill high the cup with Samian wine!
Leave battles to the Turkish hordes,
And shed the blood of Scio's vine!
Hark! rising to the ignoble call —
How answers each bold bacchanal!
- * You have the Pyrrhic dance as yet,
Where is the Pyrrhic phalanx gone?

- Of two such lessons, why forget
 The nobler and the manlier one?
 You have the letters Cadmus gave—
 Think ye he meant them for a slave?
- ‘ Fill high the bowl with Samian wine!
 We will not think of themes like these!
 It made Anacreon's song divine:
 He served — but served Polycrates —
 A tyrant; but our masters then
 Were still, at least, our countrymen.
- ‘ The tyrant of the Chersonese
 Was freedom's best and bravest friend;
 That tyrant was Miltiades!
 Oh! that the present hour would lend
 Another despot of the kind!
 Such chains as his were sure to bind.
- ‘ Fill high the bowl with Samian wine!
 On Suli's rock, and Parga's shore,
 Exists the remnant of a line
 Such as the Doric mothers bore;
 And there, perhaps, some seed is sown,
 The Heracleidan blood might own.
- ‘ Trust not for freedom to the Franks —
 They have a king who buys and sells:
 In native swords, and native ranks,
 The only hope of courage dwells;
 But Turkish force, and Latin fraud,
 Would break your shield, however broad.
- ‘ Fill high the bowl with Samian wine!
 Our virgins dance beneath the shade —
 I see their glorious black eyes shine;
 But gazing on each glowing maid,
 My own the burning tear-drop laves,
 To think such breast must suckle slaves.
- ‘ Place me on Sunium's marbled steep,
 Where nothing, save the waves and I,
 May hear our mutual murmurs sweep;
 There, swan-like, let me sing and die:
 A land of slaves shall ne'er be mine —
 Dash down yon cup of Samian wine!’

When Juan was ‘o’ermaster’d and cut down,’ Haidée burst
 a blood-vessel, and fell into a state of insensibility, in which
 she continued many days:

- ‘ She woke at length, but not as sleepers wake,
 Rather the dead, for life seem’d something new,
 A strange sensation which she must partake
 Perforce, since whatsoever met her view

Struck

Struck not on memory, though a heavy ache
Lay at her heart, whose earliest beat still true
Brought back the sense of pain without the cause,
For, for a while, the furies made a pause.

- ‘ She look’d on many a face with vacant eye,
On many a token without knowing what ;
She saw them watch her without asking why,
And reck’d not who around her pillow sat ;
Not speechless, though she spoke not ; not a sigh
Relieved her thoughts ; dull silence and quick chat
Were tried in vain by those who served ; she gave
No sign, save breath, of having left the grave.
- ‘ Her handmaids tended, but she heeded not ;
Her father watch’d, she turn’d her eyes away ;
She recognised no being, and no spot
However dear or cherish’d in their day ;
They changed from room to room, but all forgot,
Gentle, but without memory she lay ;
And yet those eyes, which they would fain be weaning
Back to old thoughts, seem’d full of fearful meaning.
- ‘ At last a slave bethought her of a harp ;
The harper came, and tuned his instrument ;
At the first notes, irregular and sharp,
On him her flashing eyes a moment bent,
Then to the wall she turn’d as if to warp
Her thoughts from sorrow through her heart re-sent,
And he began a long low island song
Of ancient days, ere tyranny grew strong.
- ‘ Anon her thin wan fingers beat the wall
In time to his old tune ; he changed the theme,
And sung of love ; the fierce name struck through all
Her recollection ; on her flash’d the dream
Of what she was, and is, if ye could call
To be so being ; in a gushing stream
The tears rush’d forth from her o’erclouded brain,
Like mountain-mists at length dissolved in rain.
- ‘ Short solace, vain relief ! — thought came too quick,
And whirl’d her brain to madness ; she arose
As one who ne’er had dwelt among the sick,
And flew at all she met, as on her foes ;
But no one ever heard her speak or shriek,
Although her paroxysm drew towards it close :
Hers was a phrensy which disdain’d to rave,
Even when they smote her, in the hope to save.
- ‘ Yet she betray’d at times a gleam of sense ;
Nothing could make her meet her father’s face,
Though on all other things with looks intense
She gazed, but none she ever could retrace :

Food she refused, and raiment ; no pretence
 Avail'd for either ; neither change of place,
 Nor time, nor skill, nor remedy, could give her
 Senses to sleep — the power seem'd gone for ever.

' Twelve days and nights she wither'd thus ; at last,
 Without a groan, or sigh, or glance, to show
 A parting pang, the spirit from her past :
 And they who watch'd her nearest could not know
 The very instant, till the change that cast
 Her sweet face into shadow, dull and slow,
 Glaz'd o'er her eyes — the beautiful, the black —
 Oh ! to possess such lustre — and then lack !'

" Alack ! alack !" what means this ending ? If a play on the words *lack-lustre*, it is pitiful : if not, it is (to us) unintelligible.

In alluding to the question of the continuance or the decay of mortal fame, Lord Byron observes that ' great names are nothing more than nominal,' and that all things change :

— ' I've stood upon Achilles' tomb,
 And heard Troy doubted : time will doubt of Rome.'

Perhaps the noble poet did not at the moment recollect the proverbial assertion, quoted by Bede ; "*Quamdiu stabit Colyseus, stabit et Roma ; quando cadet Colyseus, cadet Roma ; quando cadet Roma, cadet et mundus.*"

It is not necessary for us to animadvert on various licenses and inelegancies of composition, which we might point out in the present volume, as characteristic of its author ; for his characteristics are sufficiently known, both " the sublime and beautiful" and the ridiculous and offensive ; and we hope he is as little likely to be divested of the former as he appears inclined to rectify the latter :—but we must enter our brief and yet decisive protest against such lines as the following :

' There's not a sea the passenger e'er pukes in,
 Turns up more dangerous breakers than the Euxine.'

If Lord Byron really wishes to make his readers sick — *of him* — this mode of writing will surely afford him some chance of success. With the ladies, also, at least the married ladies, — and the single who hope to be married, — and who are they that do not ? — we think that his Lordship will not acquire great favour by taking opportunities, as he has here done, of speaking with sarcastic bitterness of the conduct of women in the conjugal state ; for instance :

' But droop not : Fortune at your time of life,
 Altho' a female moderately fickle,
 Will hardly leave you (*as she's not your wife*)
 For any length of days in such a pickle.' P. 143.

See also stanza xvii., canto iv., which we will not quote.

ART. X. *The Historia Brittonum*, commonly attributed to Nennius : from a Manuscript lately discovered in the Library of the Vatican Palace at Rome ; edited in the Tenth Century, by Mark the Hermit ; with an English Version, Fac Simile of the Original, Notes and Illustrations. By the Rev. W. Gunn, B. D. Rector of Irstead, Norfolk. 8vo. pp. 190. 18s. Boards. Arch.

THE reverend editor of this well-known work passed some time at Rome a few years ago, and obtained permission to search in the Vatican library for manuscripts relating to the antiquities of Great Britain. An antient copy of the *Historia Brittonum* especially drew his attention ; and, as it appeared to him of older date than the manuscript which has supplied the text of the received edition, he caused it to be carefully transcribed, and has here reprinted it literally, with copious illustrative notes, an introductory preface, and a close verbal translation.

Mr. G. states that the original *exemplar* is fairly written on parchment in double columns ; of one of which a fac-simile has been engraved, to serve as a frontispiece for this volume. It contains in all ten folio pages, or twenty columns of manuscript. With laudable punctuality, the editor has retained all the imperfections of his model ; the spelling, however erroneous, is preserved ; the capital and small letters correspond with the original ; the same division of paragraphs is made, with the same deficiency of punctuation : in short, the antiquary may combat, on this text, all the various difficulties to which the dry, abrupt, and equivocal style of the author is adapted to give rise.

The manuscript itself is referred by the commentator, on tolerably convincing grounds, to the close of the tenth century, or thereabouts. It once belonged to the ex-queen of Sweden, the celebrated Christina ; and, as it succeeds to a fragment of French history intitled *Nitardi Angelberti Opus de rebus Gallicis*, it is probably a manuscript of French execution, written out in some one of the Armorican monasteries of Bas-Bretagne. Hence the frequent corruption of the proper names ; which, however, is less conspicuous in those of Welsh than in those of Saxon origin. Tradition traces the custody of this manuscript to the Petavian library, and yet earlier to the monastery of Saint Germain. The author tells us (p. 2. p. 19. and p. 36.) that he was writing this book in the fifth year of the reign of King Edmund ; that is, in the year of the Christian æra 947. He also says (p. 2.) that he was called *Mark the Anchorite*, and was become a bishop in Great Britain. Perhaps this was the early designation of the celebrated Saint Dunstan ; who, during the reign of Athelstan, had

had retired to a hermitage at Glaston, in order to prosecute his studies, and who was in fact made a bishop in the fifth year of King Edmund; and it is probable, from the local residence and personal circumstances of Dunstan, that he should at this time have drawn up an epitome of Welsh history, and short biographies of Saint Germanus and Saint Patrick, which severally form the component portions of the book.

Mr. Gunn, however, does not draw this interesting inference: but we will copy his erudite note on the subject.

“ — edita ab Anachoreta Marco ejusdem gentis S^{to}. Episcopo.”) If Mark was a real personage, it is to be regretted, that he was not designated by his British, rather than by his ecclesiastical name, so that he might have been more easily identified. Independently of the ambiguity hereby occasioned, may be added that resulting from names being modelled after the Latin and Saxon tongues. In Italy, *before* the irruptions of the Goths and Lombards, the cognomen was continued in families originally Roman; but, from about that period, no name, discriminating a particular stem, descended to posterity. Some adventitious appellation marked the individual, and many of these, as the Porcari, Castracagni, &c. indicating the origin of the ancestor, are permanent in noble families of Italy; but they were often personal, and were not always continued through life. Among the Britons, we have Cynedda Wledig, (the illustrious,) Caswallon law hir (or the long-handed). St. Patrick was known by four different names, adopted in succession, each expressive of the change to which it owed its rise. Taliesin had been previously called Gwion and Merddin (Hanes Taliesin). This want of precision was complained of at the time it was practised, especially where signatures were required; and Muratori speaks of an ancient deed, subscribed by ten Johns, three Peters, and four Martins, all without any addition. Nor was it before the end of the tenth century, that a surname became permanent. “ Sub finem sæculi decimi, sed maxime sæculo undecimo ineunte, cognominum usum frequentari cœpisse.” (*Mabillon de Re Diplom.* l.11. s.7. *Muratori Diss.* 41. *Du Cange*, “ *Nomina mutari*,” O.P.M.S. and note 117.) But whether Mark be the real author, or only a transcriber of the work, the titles of Anachoreta and Episcopus must point to an age when those titles were consistent in the same individual. The high opinion once attached to the eremitical life is well known to those who are conversant with the earlier history of the Christian church. Though Cœnobites and Anchorites were then chiefly laymen, yet, from the reputation of superior sanctity, it was not unusual to draw them from their retreats, invest them with holy orders, and elevate them to the rank of bishop.* (*Orig. Eccles.* vol.

* Though the church, as to its external policy and government, held some conformity to the state and division of the Roman empire,

vol. iii. p. 19. *Godof. ad Cod. Theod.* tom. vi. pt. 1. p. 76. and 106.) Thus was the episcopal dignity sometimes conferred on such persons as an honorary distinction, or, at least, with limited authority; (*Orig. Eccles.* vol. ii. p. 163. *Fra Paolo delle mat. benif.* c. 14.) and the title of bishop was occasionally given without consecration. ("Episcopi dicuntur qui tamen nusquam consecrati sunt Episcopi." *Du Cange*.) In the *Britannia Sancta*, we meet with no less than five hermits among our countrymen, Kiaran, Kentigern, Paul, Vosiga, and Machutus, who were taken from their cells, and raised to the episcopal throne: the latest of these flourished in the sixth century. It was perhaps to prevent indiscriminate preference, that Anchorites were at length subject to rules, and placed under the jurisdiction of a superior. By the fifth canon of the seventh Council of Toledo, (646,) it was ordered, that hermits who were ignorant or immoral should be shut up in monasteries, and that those only should be left in retirement who were commendable for their holy lives. That in future, none should be admitted to the profession of a hermit, who had not learned the religious life in monasteries. And the forty-first canon of the Constantinopolitan Council, (692,) in Trullo, orders that those who would be Anchorites should be at least three years in a monastery. (See also *Isid. de Eccles. Offic.* 1. 2. c. 15. *De Monachis*.)

"There is a small island almost adjoining to Anglesey, which is inhabited by hermits, living by manual labour, and serving God. This island is called in Welsh Ynys Lenach, or the Priests' Island, because many bodies of saints are deposited there, and no woman is suffered to enter it." (*Girald. Camb. Sir R. C. Hoare's translation*, vol. ii. p. 106.)

Whether this history of the Britons was compiled by Saint Dunstan, or not, the translation is executed with all the fidelity which so vicious a text would allow: but a Welsh scholar might venture to introduce several emendations. Some have been hazarded; and usually in a manner which displays critical judgment. The notes agitate many questions interesting to the antiquary, and adduce various illustrations from the reliques of Welsh bards, and from modern authors who have busied themselves with Cimbric antiquities.

pire, the variations are not to be calculated. Before and after the council of Sardica, (A. 347,) there were bishops, both in small cities and villages. Nazianzum "was but a very small city," and for that reason, Gregory Nazienzen styled his own father, who was bishop of it, *μικροπολίτης*, a little bishop, and one of the second order. Yet he was no Chorepiscopus, but as absolute a bishop in his own diocese as the bishop of Rome, or Alexandria, &c. &c. "In Asia Minor, a tract of land not much larger than the Isle of Great Britain, (including but two dioceses of the empire,) there were almost 400 bishops; as appears from the ancient *Notitias* of the church," &c. — (*Bingham*, b. i. c. 12. sec. 2.)

Nicholson,

Nicholson, in his *English Historical Library*, (a superficial work,) has given the name of Nennius to the author of the *Historia Brittonum*. A conjecture so fraught with anachronism hardly deserves a serious refutation; yet it may be worth while to observe that, according to Nicholson himself, Nennius was the abbot of fifty monks who fled to Chester, at the time of a persecution provoked in 620 by the predications of Saint Augustin; whereas the author of the *Historia Brittonum* reckons himself to have flourished five hundred and forty-two years after the coming of the Saxons to Great Britain; that is, about four hundred years later.—The historical value of the chronicle itself is not considerable: but it preserves some improbable particulars of the lives of Saint Germanus and Saint Patrick; and it collects some Welsh traditions concerning the wars of Worgtign and Arthur against Hengist and Horsa. These two pirates seem to have been the first Saxons known to the Welsh historians in consequence of this very warfare: but the eastern shore had certainly been peopled aboriginally with Saxon settlers, and long before Hengist and Horsa obtained possession of the Isle of Thanet. Indeed the Romans, at a period prior to the arrival of this colony of Saxons, had already appointed a *Comes littoris Saxonici*.

We much wish that the reverend editor of this curious volume would deign to examine the life of Saint Dunstan; and, if he should acquiesce in our suspicion that this was the true author of the *Historia Brittonum*, he would naturally feel disposed to attach a biography of the saint to this classical republication of his writings. Moreri, although he has misspelt some English names of towns, has given a better life of Saint Dunstan than many of the English biographical dictionaries: he had consulted Catholic lives of the saints.

ART. XI. *The Mountain Bard*; consisting of *Legendary Ballads and Tales*. By James Hogg, the Ettrick Shepherd. The Third Edition, greatly enlarged. To which is prefixed a *Memoir of the Author's Life*, written by Himself. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Whittakers. 1821.

IT is with real satisfaction that we perceive, in these products of Mr. Hogg's muse, the marks of his improvement in traits of simple and not inelegant poesy. His fancy does not wing a high flight: but his diction is visibly more correct, and less at variance with the rules of good taste and propriety than those specimens on which we have before animadverted. *The Mountain-Bard* is a collection indeed of the

the legendary tales of his country: but in these pieces he does not seek a refuge, as it were, in the obscurities of his native dialect, from the critical judicature to which all poets, high or low, are amenable when they sin against the established laws of the art.

Yet, were criticism influenced by extrinsic circumstances, and if every book did not stand for judgment according to its merits without reference to any other consideration, the life of Mr. Hogg, prefixed to the little volume before us, would necessarily mitigate its austerity. He will excuse us, therefore, if we speak with higher commendation of the style and spirit of this little specimen of auto-biography than of the poems that follow it: not that they are destitute of interest, for some of them find their way directly to the heart, but that the struggles of a strong mind with indigence and sorrow present a picture, which it is impossible to contemplate without emotions of a much higher class. It is true, as Sir Walter Scott remarked, — under whose auspices this picture originally appeared, — that the incidents of such a life are often trivial, and narrated in a style more suitable to their importance to the author himself than to their own nature and consequences: but it is still the conflict of genius with the hardships of its lot; and, if the tale be tinged with the personal varieties of the narrator, who will censoriously chide the harmless egotism which magnifies the difficulties of the contest or the greatness of the triumph, and

“ Imparts an hour's importance to the poor man's heart?”

James Hogg was descended, it seems, from a family of shepherds. When he was in his sixth year, his father became insolvent, and with his wife and family was turned out of doors without a farthing. His education commenced when he was seven years of age, but it lasted only about six months: for, being put to school with a lad who was teaching the children of a neighbouring farmer, he learned merely a little writing; and the stock of other acquirements, which in that small portion of time he was enabled to gain, may be well supposed to be scanty. From seven to fourteen, he served various masters as a cow-herd, and in this period had access to no book but the Bible. ‘I was greatly taken,’ he says, ‘with our version of the Psalms of David. Every little pittance that I earned of wages was carried directly to my parents, who supplied me with what clothes I had.’

It does not appear that, even at the versifying age of eighteen, the poetic organ, as Dr. Spurzheim would say, was developed in this writer, for he had scarcely any higher stand-

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ard of poetry than the Scottish translation of the Psalms. He speaks with becoming gratitude of a Mr. Laidlaw of Blackhouse, with whom he served as a shepherd for ten years. He first tried to write verses in the spring of 1793, by attempting a poetical epistle to a student of divinity, one of his acquaintances; and he passes the following ingenuous judgment on his effort. 'It was a piece of most fulsome flattery, and mostly composed of borrowed lines and sentences from Dryden's Virgil, and Harvey's Life of Bruce.'

We do not affect even to abridge the whole of Mr. Hogg's biography: but we must not omit to mention his writing apparatus. 'Having very little spare time,' he says, 'from my flock, which was unruly enough, I folded and stitched a few sheets of paper, which I carried in my pocket. I had no ink-horn; but in place of it, I borrowed a small vial, which I fixed in a hole in the breast of my waistcoat, and having a cork affixed by a piece of twine, it answered the purpose fully as well. Thus equipped, whenever a leisure minute or two offered, I had nothing to do but to sit down and write my thoughts as I found them.'

Having saved a small sum by industry and regularity, and spent it in England in one week, he hired himself again as a shepherd. It was at this time that he published the first edition of the *Mountain-Bard*; and by the proceeds of that work, and of another which he wrote on sheep, he was made master of nearly 300*l*. He now, according to his own account, went perfectly mad, took a farm, embarked too boldly in business, lost every thing, flung his plaid over his shoulders, and marched away to Edinburgh, to push his fortune as a literary man. Happily for him, his animal spirits were unextinguishable; and he observes that he was generally most cheerful when most unfortunate.

In his thirty-third year, he tells us, he had never been in polished society, had read scarcely any thing, and knew no more of human life and manners than a child. He seems, however, to have had an invincible confidence in his own powers; for, having attempted a literary weekly paper, which became so indecorous that in a short time 73 subscribers withdrew their names, and the literary ladies having declared that he never could write; — "Gaping deevils," he exclaimed, "wha cares what they say! If I leeve ony time, I'll let them see the contrair o' that."

His next literary work was *The Queen's Wake*. The following sentence evinces a nicety of *tact*, rarely to be found in Mr. Hogg's condition and circumstances: 'I had likewise before this time been introduced to most of the great literary
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characters in the metropolis, and lived with them on terms of intimacy, finding myself more and more a welcome guest at all their houses. However, I was careful not to abuse their indulgence; for, with the exception of a few intimate friends, I made myself extremely scarce.' — We find him now established in the world, but retaining the native impetuosity and honest independence of his character. We wish we could add that he exercised a requisite degree of discretion in literary matters: but his contributions to some periodical works do him little credit: though he asserts that his manuscript was seasoned with a good deal of *devilry*, by other persons. — It would be kindness to Mr. Hogg to omit all mention of his quarrel with Sir Walter Scott: but it is due to the benevolence and humanity of the latter to state that, in a season of affliction and sickness, the shepherd received from him the most prompt and friendly assistance.

Of the pieces contained in this volume, the most interesting are those which are founded on historical facts or old tradition, and their greatest charm consists in their being highly successful imitations of the style of the old ballad. Of the first, intitled Sir David Graeme, the story is simply this. The Graeme had sworn by the 'stars sae bright' to bear off the lady 'fore her father's towers;' and, while she was waiting for him with all the torturing impatience of a lover, her faithful dove brought her 'a lock o' yellow hair,' and a diamond-ring, pledges of her heart, which she had given to the Graeme. Sir David's trusty hound then comes to her, and entices her to follow him, which having done, she finds her lover murdered in a mossy den. She is afterward 'rest of reason' and confined in Howswood tower. — We shall quote a few stanzas:

- ' The dow flew east, the dow flew west,
The dow flew far ayont the fell;
An' sair at e'en she seemed distrest,
But what perplex'd her could not tell.
- ' But aye she coo'd wi' mournfu' croon,
An' ruffled a' her feathers fair;
An' lookit sad as she war boun'
To leave the land for evermair.' P. 4.
- ' When, lo! Sir David's trusty hound,
Wi' humpling back, an' a wae fu' ee,
Came cringing in an' lookit around,
But his look was hopeless as could be.
- ' He laid his head on that lady's knee,
An' he lookit as somebody he would name,
An' there was a language in his howe e'e,
That was stronger than a tongue could frame.

' She fed him wi' the milk an' the bread,
 An' ilka good thing that he wad hae ;
 He lickit her hand, he coured his head,
 Then slowly, slowly he slunkered away.' P. 9.

The hound conducts her to the fatal spot ;

' An' he waggit his tail, an' he fawned about,
 Then he coured him down sae wearilye ;
 " Ah ! yon's my love, I hae found him out,
 He's lying waiting in the dell for me.' P. 10.

When she discovers the dreadful certainty, two stanzas of great beauty follow :

' There's a cloud that fa's darker than the night,
 An' darkly on that lady it came ;
 There's a sleep as deep as the sleep outright, —
 'Tis without a feeling or a name.
 ' 'Tis a dull an' a dreamless lethargye,
 For the spirit strays owre vale an' hill,
 An' the bosom is left a vacancy,
 An' when it comes back it is darker still.'

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR AUGUST, 1821.

EDUCATION.

Art. 12. *A Treatise on Arithmetic*, in Theory and Practice. By James Thomson, A.M., Professor of Mathematics in the Belfast Institution. 12mo. Printed at Belfast.

A much higher degree of consideration is undoubtedly due to this work than to the general order of treatises on arithmetic. The several rules are arranged in the most natural succession, and their illustrations reduced to the most simple and instructive form. Good judgment likewise appears to have been exercised in the suppression of several useless rules, and in the introduction of others not commonly found in books of arithmetic. The questions, moreover, are so contrived that, while they serve all the purposes of arithmetical lessons to the student, they give him information of many important facts in commerce, geography, astronomy, chronology, chemistry, and other branches of knowledge : a plan which cannot but be attended with very considerable advantage.

We give the following extracts from the several lists of examples, in illustration of what is above stated :

Examples on Subtraction.— ' The following are the years of the Christian era in which the under-mentioned events happened : required the number of years from each till the year 1820. Commencement of the Hegira, or era of the flight of Mahomet, 622 ;
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the Arabic, or modern notation in arithmetic, introduced from Arabia into Europe by the Saracens, 991; First Crusade, 1096; Magna Charta signed by King John, 1215; Linen first made in England, 1253; Termination of the Crusades, 1291; Spectacles invented by a monk of Pisa, 1299; Gunpowder first used in Europe, 1330; University of St. Andrew's founded, 1411; Algebra introduced into Europe from Arabia, 1412; Printing invented, 1440; Constantinople taken by the Turks, 1453; America discovered by Columbus, 1492, &c. &c.

Examples in continued Fractions. — 'The height of Mount Etna is 10,963 feet, and that of Mount Vesuvius 9900 feet: required the approximate ratio of their heights.

'The height of Mount Hecla is 4900 feet, and that of Mount Perdu, the highest of the Pyrenees, 11,283 feet: required the approximate ratio of their heights.

'Find the approximate ratios of 1 and 3.6055513 , (that is, of 1 to the square root of 13.)

'Required the series of ratios approaching the ratio of English and Irish acres.

'The weights of equal bulks of pure water and fluid mercury are as 1 to 13.568: required the series of fractions converging to this ratio.

'It has been computed that, between the years 1696 and 1800, the value of money decreased so much, that in the former year 1*l.* would procure as much of the necessaries of life as 2*l.* 7*s.* 11*d.* in the latter: required the series of fractions approaching to the ratio of the values of money at these periods.'

If we were disposed to find any fault with this treatise, it would be simply to state that, as we think, the questions are multiplied to an unreasonable extent; and that too much of a student's time would be employed in this department of the mathematics, unless he were allowed to pass over a very large portion of the examples.

Art. 13. *An easy and useful Introduction to Arithmetic*; intended to benefit Scholars by the Simplicity of its Arrangement, and to perfect them in the most useful Rules. Designed more especially for the Use of Day Schools. By C. Bowyer, Superintendent of Sir John Jackson's School, Dover. 12mo. 2*s.* 6*d.* Boards. Darton and Harvey.

We can see but little in this arithmetical treatise, that distinguishes it from the numerous similar works on the same subject by which it has been preceded. After a rather close examination, we may perhaps venture to say that it is tolerably correct, and free from press-errors: it has also at least the merit of being as concise as it could well be desired; and if we can find nothing in it deserving of particular praise, neither do we discover any thing which calls for critical censure.

Art. 14. *The Mental Calculator*; being a Compendium of concise yet general Rules for the ready Solution of various useful and interesting Problems in Astronomy; with explanatory Illustrations. By P. Lovekin. 12mo. 3*s.* Half-bound. Le
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Although we have not much objection to offer against the execution of this little volume, we have doubts as to the judgment displayed in the selection of subjects and in their arrangement. Commonly, calculations respecting the feasts and fasts of the church, the dominical letter, the epact, &c. are not objects of much interest to children; nor is it, we conceive, desirable that they should be made a part of their instruction, since there are many subjects of greater utility on which the time of the junior classes in schools may be employed.

Art. 15. *The Scholar's Remembrancer*; containing Tables Arithmetical, Historical, Geographical, Scriptural, Chronological, and Biographical, carefully selected from the highest Authorities, for the Use of Schools Classical and English. By M. Seaman. 12mo. 1s. Holdsworth, Baldwin and Co. &c.

We cannot say much more of this work than the author has expressed in the title. It certainly contains a variety of useful little tables, which may be consulted by a student with advantage, and it would form a pretty present for an inquisitive child. The tables of chronology and biography, although necessarily very much contracted, contain many names and events of public notoriety.

L A W.

Art. 16. *An Essay on Criminal Jurisprudence*, with the Draft of a new Penal Code, &c. &c. By J. T. Barber Beaumont, Esq. F.A.S. One of His Majesty's Justices of the Peace for Middlesex and Westminster. 8vo. pp. 84. Ridgway. 1821.

We are very glad to see a pamphlet on such a subject as this, written by 'one of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace for Middlesex and Westminster.' Few persons have dispassionately studied our criminal code without being impressed with the conviction that very great amendments in it are desirable; and some writers of eminence have urged the expediency of an entire revision, and the establishment of a new code on better principles. We ourselves have always conceived that it would be better to proceed gradually, by exposing those instances in which the mischiefs of the old system were the most glaring; and to provide, by legislative enactments, punishments in those cases more suitable to the offences, more likely to be carried into execution, and therefore more likely to be effectual. This was the plan adopted by the late Sir Samuel Romilly; and some late proceedings in the House of Commons, in which, after much shew of unanimity on general propositions, one of the first practical measures brought forwards was defeated by a petty manœuvre of party, confirm us in our opinion that the cautious conduct of Sir Samuel Romilly was the wisest: for it is clearly much better to effect a little by concentrating the energy of the attempt on one single topic, than to be amused with visions of an entirely new system, and to gain nothing in reality. However, every new discussion, whether the immediate result be successful or not, is of use in exciting the attention of the public, in ascertaining the extent of inveterate prejudices, and

in enabling those who wish for improvement to estimate the real difficulties attending the nature of the subject on which they propose to legislate, and to reduce their schemes into some more precise and definite form.

The pamphlet before us is written by a gentleman of some practical experience, though of rather varied avocations, and cannot therefore fall under the imputation which is cast on many works on the same subject, as being the production of idle and visionary theorists. To obviate the inconveniences which at present attend the prosecution of petty offences, the length of time that intervenes between the offence and the penalty, the detention of the culprits in society which can only harden them in vice, and the expences of trial, several writers have recommended summary cognizance by justices of the peace, with the power of immediately inflicting castigation, or other trifling punishment: but the objections, on constitutional principles, to an extension of discretionary power, are obvious. The following is the plan suggested by Mr. Beaumont, and which he terms trial by a single magistrate, subject by mutual consent to appeal to a jury:

‘ Let it be competent for a single magistrate to try, in the first instance, minor offences — such as annoyance, abuse, slander, challenging, common assaults, cruelty to animals, indecencies, solicitation of chastity, seduction, withholding the property of another, pilfering, privately stealing, frauds and embezzlement under the value of 20s., illegal combinations in trades, and sedition — provided the prosecutor, the accused, and the magistrate, concur in chusing that mode of trial; his decision, however, to be subject to an appeal to a jury at the quarter sessions, (who in such cases should decide upon the fact, and the quantum of penalty,) provided such appeal be demanded by either prosecutor or accused, within 24 hours.

‘ The advantages of such a jurisdiction would be various and important. There are many accusations, against which no defence is offered, and yet prosecutors and witnesses are kept many months in suspense, and weeks in attendance, to prove their case before a jury. But the truth might be established equally well in a few hours before a single magistrate, and a great deal of trouble and expense saved. Small thefts, the initiatory acts of regular thieves, indecencies, abuse, annoyances, and other disorderly acts, which hourly disturb society, and provoke men to acts of resentment which are oftentimes fatal, are generally thought unworthy of the trouble, expense, and publicity of a trial by jury, and are therefore suffered to be carried on without restraint, until their fruition or consequences amount to great crimes. Pilfering and embezzlements committed by boys and girls are upon similar considerations passed over, by their parents and masters. But without material trouble and expense, and without exposing the character of the juvenile offender to the lasting disgrace of a public conviction, and thereby rendering his future condition desperate, a trial by a single magistrate produces a corrective punishment when due; and in the facility of judging thus proposed, there is no compro-

mise of the security of the subject, or of the ends of justice. If the accused prefers a public trial, he may object to a trial by a single magistrate, and so may either the prosecutor or the magistrate before whom the case is brought, if either of them thinks the case one upon which a public trial ought to be held. There must be a concurrence of all the three parties, to enter upon a summary trial; and when the trial is ended, the right of appeal is a further protection against injustice; the prosecutor and accused will both go to the second trial with advantages. The facts alleged, and the witnesses, will be completely before both parties, neither can then be taken by surprise.

With regard to punishment for crimes of a more serious cast, one of the best hitherto devised seemed to be imprisonment and hard labour: which was considered as securing society, at least for a time, from the depredations of the mischievous propensities of the individual; and as doing all that could be done to reform that individual himself, by enuring him to habits of industry, and by qualifying him to gain an honest livelihood on being restored to society. Establishments for carrying this system into effect, however, may have been built on a plan unnecessarily expensive; and they may have been conducted, through inexperience, and the operation of those casualties which befall all new experiments, in a manner not hitherto the best suited to bring forwards the advantages which the system itself seems to possess. Mr. Beaumont calculates that the House of Correction in Middlesex costs annually about 12,000*l.*, and that the annual produce of the labour of the prisoners is only 260*l.*; so that 'their earnings amount to no more than a 46th part of their expences as single men.' He estimates also that the annual expences of the Penitentiary at Millbank, independently of the interest on half a million disbursed in its erection, amount to 10*l.* for each convict. 'These considerations have thrown Mr. B. into the opposite extreme, and his grand method for the prevention of crimes and the reformation of criminals is *solitary* and *severe* imprisonment. We disapprove this plan, except under certain circumstances and restrictions: but our readers may desire to see Mr. Beaumont's own account and justification of it:

'Solitary and severe imprisonment,' says he, 'in the House of Correction, is the instrument chiefly relied upon, both for the prevention of crimes and the reformation of criminals. It is adapted for the private correction of a vicious boy or girl, of an idle or disorderly apprentice, and it is equally calculated, by an extension of its duration, to subdue or terrify a hardened villain into orderly habits; but in this administration we must give up the tender intention, but cruel allurements, of making imprisonment comfortable. We have lived to see the folly of that experiment proved; we revert, therefore, to the principle upon which the plain sense of our forefathers acted, viz. that of making imprisonment for crimes a state of suffering, an object of dread. In place of presenting to the eyes of the dishonest, for their reward, a pleasing assortment of comforts, we propose to thrust before them, as the accompaniment of their

their term of imprisonment, a picture of horrors, a deprivation of all the comforts of life, a suspension of all social intercourse, no sight afforded of friends or acquaintances, no communication with them, no association or discourse even with fellow-prisoners, no more or better food than is sufficient to support nature, nor clothing than is enough to cover the body and defend it from cold, nor bedding than straw, nor light than to render darkness visible.— To be more particular : it is proposed to place each convict in a solitary vaulted cell six feet square, (a brick building 45 feet long, 20 feet wide, and 30 feet high, containing three stories, with a row of 6 cells on each side of a gallery 3 feet wide, would contain 36 cells, and under the system proposed, it is likely that not more than 30 convicts would be in prison at one time where there are now 300). It is proposed that, when the convict is received, he shall be stript of his usual clothing, be washed, have his hair cut close, be supplied with a blanket to cover him, and a pair of wooden shoes, and nothing more, unless a medical attendant on the prison certifies that the prisoner's state of health or habits renders stockings or other extra clothing necessary; that he shall be allowed no other food than coarse bread and water, and no other bedding than rough straw : he shall not be shaved during his confinement; he shall always be locked up in his cell, excepting one hour in the morning, and one hour in the afternoon, when all the prisoners on a floor shall be marched into a court-yard, and made to walk (a full pace, at least, asunder) round the court, on a narrow footway, which does not allow them room to walk otherwise than in single file; they shall be prohibited, under the penalty of a dozen lashes, from speaking to each other or making any unruly noise. When their beards do not sufficiently disguise them to prevent their being known to each other, they shall wear masks; they shall hold no communication, by word or writing, with any one during the term of imprisonment, excepting the officers of the prison.

‘ If illness, or any other imperative circumstance, causes a suspension of the solitary discipline of their confinement, such time shall not be included in the term of their sentence.

‘ A lighter cell, books, pens and ink, and permission to work, may be allowed in certain cases, where the apparent amendment and good conduct of the convict earn such indulgence, and in every such instance, a proportion of the convict's earnings may be given to him on his quitting prison.

‘ Under such a discipline as this, the most turbulent spirit would be subdued and reduced to a proper mood to receive and benefit by good advice. A short and impressive daily exhortation in the gallery of the ward (the doors thrown open, but the prisoners forbidden to come out) would not fail to be listened to with eagerness; for the sounds of condolence and advice, and even of reproof, would be an acceptable relief to the cheerless blank of their existence.

‘ Let not this system be too hastily deemed cruel, — rightly considered it will be found merciful. It will save the distressed

from the allurements to crime, which prison-comforts now hold out. It will save offenders that may be reclaimed from prison contamination and acquaintance—a most important consideration. It will save many from the publication of their disgrace, and consequent loss of character; besides all this, in proportion as it is proposed to increase the intensity of suffering, in a similar degree it is meant to shorten its duration. One month's imprisonment, upon the proposed plan, it is conceived, would go further in exciting dread and subduing bad spirits, than twelve months of the present equivocal punishments, made up of privations and indulgences, severity and tenderness, prayer and jollity. It is therefore presumed, that it would be unnecessary, under the proposed plan, to abstract more than a twelfth part of that portion of a criminal's life, which is sacrificed under the present system of imprisonment.

To the honest and industrious part of the public, to those whose hard earnings are now drained to supply the present prison-comforts of their dishonest brethren, the proposed alteration would also be merciful; for while the prospect of effective punishment would deter very many from committing depredations, who at present do not feel so deterred, and while others, who had suffered the proposed punishment, would be reformed by the dread of suffering it again—for the remainder, one-twelfth part of the prison-room and expenses now required would be sufficient.

We remember to have seen something of the same harsh kind recommended in a pamphlet published about half a century ago by Dr. Rush of Philadelphia. The abode of the criminals was to be in a remote and uncultivated part of the country, and what passed in the interior was to be known only to the police and to select visitors. It was to be understood that some severe and terrible punishments were inflicted there, but the nature of them was to be a complete mystery, and the very name of the place was never to be mentioned without some sign of horror. Terrors so obscure and indefinite might in some cases appall the imagination, and with some dispositions Mr. Beaumont's system of discipline might prevent the perpetration of crimes, or subdue the spirit of criminals: but on many other dispositions the effect would be directly the contrary; and his sense of shame being completely lost, and perhaps his sense of humanity outraged, the criminal would return to society exasperated with what he had been forced to endure, and thirsting for an opportunity to exercise those vindictive and malignant passions which he had been nurturing in silence and solitude. Need we, moreover, urge the danger of tribunals so assimilated to all the dreadful mischiefs of an *Inquisition*, in secrecy and power?

Mr. Beaumont's attempt to apportion punishment to offences is executed with more humanity and discrimination than the extract which we have just made would lead the reader to anticipate: but, in most cases, the discretionary power, which he would vest in the magistrate as to the amount of the fine or the duration of the imprisonment—

imprisonment, (between the limits of four and forty-eight weeks sometimes, and sometimes of three and twelve years,) appears to us excessive, and very liable to abuse. Some of the cases, also, do not seem to have been sufficiently weighed: for instance, Mr. Beaumont would visit cruelty to animals with imprisonment from two to twelve weeks: the concealment or secret interment of the corpse of a person who died under circumstances requiring the knowledge of the coroner, with imprisonment from one to twelve months; seduction of an infant under the age of ten years with solitary imprisonment from four to twenty-four weeks, and *emasculation*; gaolers conniving at an escape for reward to be subject to the punishment of offenders escaping. We do not think, moreover, that the following provision would tend to promote the independence of the bar, which is one of the valuable securities for the liberty of the subject. Slander incidentally made in the course of legal proceedings, 'if it appear to have been advanced maliciously or wantonly, the judges in giving judgment may award compensation to the injured party, and reprimand, *fine, or suspend from his practice* in the court any solicitor or barrister originating or publishing unmerited abuse or slander.' — Among the rules laid down for the administration of justice, we observe two which appear highly objectionable: one that would allow a second trial of an offender at his own desire; and another which provides that witnesses dwelling at a distance should be examined by a commission on the spot, unless the importance or nature of the testimony renders the examination in court expedient.

Disapproving many parts of the pamphlet before us, we still recommend it strongly to the consideration of our readers; and we cannot refrain from expressing our gratification at every new occasion, which evinces the increasing interest that is taken in a subject of such essential importance as the improvement of our penal code.

POETRY.

Art. 17. *Don Juan*; Canto the Third. 8vo. 4s. 6d. stitched. Greenlaw. 1821.

If we cannot inform our readers to whose romping muse this continuation is to be attributed, we can very safely assure them whose *it is not*. We need scarcely add that it is not the production of Lord Byron, whose actual resumption of this *heroic subject* is recorded in a preceding page. (418.) The public will readily excuse us, therefore, if we make *short work* of the pamphlet before us, and consign it quietly to the "tomb of all the" Juans. Whatever degree of merit it evinces, and however happily the joke is kept up, the anonymous author must pardon us if we cannot join in it: for this, like many other practical jokes of our more mischievous wits, is of too injurious a nature to be encouraged. It is sufficiently trying to the patience of the public to receive, at the hands of the "*imitatorum servum pecus*," a crowd of imitations and parodies of what is excellent in some of our first poets; without being subjected to the mortification of

seeing their failings, both moral and poetical, keenly emulated, and again obtruded on the reader's offended taste and feelings.

As to the poem before us, we shall only add that it contains in many passages indications of superior and various powers, though rather rude and untutored : but the high qualities of the original are faintly preserved : while the comic mixture of the sublime and the burlesque, the pathetic and the lively, and the stoical and passionate, are too nearly interwoven and too injudiciously applied to produce a very happy effect.

POLITICS.

Art. 18. *Essays on the present False and Unjust Standard of Value*, proving that all Debts, Taxes, and other Money Obligations in England have been virtually doubled since the Peace, from paying in Sterling Coin at the Par of 20s. on each and every Pound Note. Urging also the Necessity of respectfully petitioning the Legislature to restore the Currency to a Standard of true Metallic Value : thereby reducing the National Debt and all Taxes One Half, on the Ground of perfect Equity and without Loss. By Richard Cruttwell, Clerk and LL. B., Author of "The Crisis," "English Finance," &c. 12mo. 1s. Hatchard. 1821.

Art. 19. *Appendix to Essays on the Currency and present Standard of Value*, containing a few Strictures on the Speeches of Mr. Ricardo, Mr. Pearse (Bank-Director), Mr. Baring, and the Right Hon. William Huskisson, in the House of Commons, March 19th and 20th. By Richard Cruttwell, Clerk and LL. B. 12mo. 3d. Hatchard.

Though Mr. Cruttwell is a clergyman, it appears from his own statement that he has been in the habit of addressing public lectures on financial subjects to audiences in the north of England; and his name as a writer on such topics, though not familiar, is not altogether new to our readers, who may remember that in our Number for October, 1818, we took occasion to animadvert with some severity on a pamphlet published by this gentleman under the title of "English Finance." Our strictures regarded partly the boldness of the propositions, but still more the loose and desultory character of the style; and these censures are unluckily too applicable to the minor productions now before us.

In his former pamphlet, Mr. C. proposed that, in consideration of the rise of the value of money since the peace, 12s. of our present currency should be declared equal to 20s. of our war-currency: he now goes a step farther; and, after having recapitulated (pp. 11, 12.) a variety of manufactured articles (hardware, cotton, woollen, and leather,) which have experienced a fall of 40, 50, or 60 per cent. since 1818, he urges that the legislature should not hesitate to pronounce the payment of 10s. of our present money to be equivalent to a payment of 20s. in time of war. In vain, he adds, did the landed interest flatter themselves with the hope of keeping up prices by a corn-bill: experience has fully
shewn

shewn the impracticability of such an attempt on the part of any great interest in the country, or even of government; and what alternative remains but to bring down our charges, particularly our taxes, to the same level? This argument is urged page after page, in sentences abounding with assertion, repetition, and declamation, but almost entirely devoid of that careful reasoning, that gradual advance from one point to another, which alone can carry conviction to an inquiring mind. Nothing but an actual reference to these tracts will convey an idea of the looseness of their composition; and our censures can be qualified only by admitting that occasionally they present a few sound remarks, such as those on the bad effects that would have resulted from our corn-law of 1815, had it been carried into actual operation; and the selection of a few inconsistencies in the speeches of the parliamentary gentlemen named in the title-page.

Art. 20. *Monopoly and Taxation vindicated against the Errors of the Legislature.* By a Nottinghamshire Farmer. 8vo. pp. 62. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1821.

Labour, which, according to the well known theory of Dr. Smith, is the only satisfactory measure of value, is also the only source of wealth in the opinion of this 'Farmer,' who presses his questions on the subject with all the emphasis of the teacher of rhetoric in the days of antiquity. What, he asks, pays interest to the capitalist? Profit on labour. What pays taxation? Profit on labour. What pays the rent of land? Profit on labour. Nothing, according to him, can be more harsh or more impolitic than to reduce the price of labour; and, judging from past example, he is inclined to regard any such reduction as the precursor of general embarrassment, for it was cheapness that preceded the distress of 1816, not distress that preceded cheapness. He calculates, we apprehend with some exaggeration, that towards the end of the war, in such years as 1812 and 1813, every effective labourer produced four or five times the value of his consumption; and he reduces his arguments (p. 19.) into a kind of practical form by the supposed case of two islands, one free from public burdens, and the other pledged to pay the annual interest of a heavy debt. The prosperity of the latter is represented as proceeding without interruption from its burdens, and the high price of labour is supposed to promote invention: all, in short, goes on favourably until, in an evil hour, permission is granted to import the necessaries of life from their untaxed neighbour; the result of which is seen in a fall of prices, a discouragement of labour, and a subversion of the general prosperity.

In another case (p. 23.), the same result is inferred from supposing produce hitherto obtained by dint of labour to be brought forth spontaneously, — to flow like water from a fountain. These arguments, partly valid and partly erroneous, are urged by this *soi-disant* Nottinghamshire farmer with considerable ingenuity, but without that brevity of style, and that cogency of argument, which ought to characterize so difficult and important a ques-

Like statistic writers of greater note, (we mean Mr. Gray and Dr. Purves,) the author seems to overlook the different value of money at different times, and to consider the 30 or 40 per cent. less, which is paid to the manufacturer in peace than in war, in the light of a *bond fide* reduction; as if the numerical inferiority of the sum were not, in a great measure, neutralized by the greater power of money in the purchase of provisions and manufactured articles.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 21. *Considerations on the Coronation Oath*, humbly submitted to the Attention of the Legislature. By an Officer of Rank in the Royal Navy. 8vo. pp. 107. Hunter. 1821.

The author of this pamphlet, recollecting the scruples which are said to have been entertained by his late Majesty about affording relief to his Roman Catholic subjects, as contravening his Coronation-oath, regarded it as very desirable that the oath should be modified, and took the opportunity of the late Coronation to make known his opinions. Perhaps he has not sufficiently considered the real purport of that oath, or whether such scruples, if they existed, did not originate in a complete misapprehension of the subject: but the oath has been taken unaltered by his present Majesty, and it remains to be seen whether he will view it in the same light with his predecessor. The discussion of the oath, as affecting the Roman Catholics, occupies but a few pages at the outset of this tract; the remainder of which is allotted to an endeavour to shew that 'the creeds of the established church, taken together, are not only contrary to reason, but absolutely contradictory to each other;' and the author would infer that, 'whatever may have been the custom of our forefathers,' it is 'highly unreasonable to continue an oath binding a sovereign to maintain a religion, which, though founded on the Holy Scriptures, is to be explained by rules that are not only fallacious but self-contradictory.' It is somewhat extraordinary to find a naval officer entering into a theological conflict of this kind, and we do not wish to become parties in it.

Art. 22. *The Method of calculating the Values of Life-Annuities, Assurances, Fines payable on the Renewal of Leases, &c.* for Terms of Years certain, and for Lives; with a large Collection of Tables, &c. By William Hendry. 8vo. pp. 173. Baldwin and Co.

The motive assigned by Mr. Hendry, for undertaking the publication of this collection of tables, is that many people, who were in possession of similar works, did not understand their application; and, therefore, (but we cannot see the force of the argument,) he thought it was necessary to multiply the number by giving another Method.

'Having this view of the case, and a plan in my mind which, I thought, would be understood by every reader who has a knowledge of the common rules of arithmetic, I lost no time in beginning my system.

system. I studied the works of Baron Maseres, Dr. Price, Mr. Moody, and Mr. Baily; and being of opinion, with an eminent mathematician, that materials of this sort are common property, I either extracted or imitated whatever best suited my purpose. I have been at the trouble, which was not a little, to calculate table 28 at 4 and 5 per cent. and table 29 at 5 per cent. on three joint lives, and also several others.

'All the tables in the collection are deduced from the Northampton Table of Observations. I have shewn the way of computing them, and have given a sufficient number of proper and useful examples for adapting them to practical purposes.

'The method pursued is new, and I flatter myself that, to the public in general, and to the gentlemen of the profession in particular, this work will be acceptable.'

How far the work will be 'acceptable' to gentlemen in the profession we cannot determine: but Mr. Hendry certainly mistakes if he supposes that it is a *new method* of making a book 'to extract and imitate whatever best suited his purpose' from the works of other authors. Such things happen every day.

The two tables computed with so much 'labour' occupy *two pages*; and the volume itself contains one hundred and seventy-three.

Art. 23. *A Series of Tables*, exhibiting the Gain and Loss to the Fund-holder arising from the Fluctuations in the Value of the Currency from 1800 to 1821. By Robert Mushet, Esq. 8vo. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

The name of Mr. Mushet is familiar to those who have attended to the Bullion-question, either in its early stage, when the discussions relative to it were prompted by Mr. Horner, or more lately, when the labours of our legislature ended in the resumption of cash-payments by the act currently termed Mr. Peel's Bill; that gentleman having been chairman of the Committee, and ostensible author of the measure. In 1810, Mr. Mushet published a pamphlet on the effects produced on our currency and exchange by the suspension of cash-payments in 1797; and he added to it a series of tables explaining, in parallel columns, the state of our continental exchanges during a number of years, with the price of bullion as purchased in bank-notes. In 1819, his name appears among the witnesses examined before the Committee on Bank-affairs, particularly that of the House of Lords; and in the present year, indefatigable in calculations connected with the fluctuation of money, he took up the pen as soon as he observed from the language of Mr. Curwen and others, both in and out of parliament, that an idea prevailed that fund-holders had been ~~the~~ gainers by the fluctuations in the value of our currency.

Without disputing that the value of stock ~~is~~ of ~~more~~ property generally, has risen greatly since the peace, Mr. Mushet maintains that, if we take a comprehensive range and depth of calculations from 1800, the period when the suspension of ~~cash~~ first produced a sensible depreciation of our ~~currency~~ ~~the~~

discover on the whole a considerable sacrifice on the part of the fund-holder. Taking the amount of the interest of our national debt on 1st February, 1800, he shews that, in the two succeeding years, the injury to the fund-holder from the fall of bank-notes was considerable: in 1802 a recovery took place, and continued with no material interruption until our unfortunate Orders in Council in 1808, the increase of our continental expenditure by the war with Spain, and the large purchases of corn consequent on the bad harvest of 1809. The concurrence of these causes led in 1810, and the following years of the war, to a loss of great amount; viz. from 10 to 15 and even 25 per cent. on our bank-paper, and consequently on the dividends paid to the fund-holders through its medium.

Such is the course pursued by Mr. M. with regard to the debt existing before 1800: the money subsequently borrowed is stated separately for each year, and requires accordingly twenty distinct tables. After these and some farther calculations, we are presented with the reverse of the picture, viz. the gain to a part of the fund-holders from the rise in the value of money since the peace.

The fluctuation of money depends, it is well known, on various causes; on a transition from war to peace; on an extra demand by government for men and money; on an increase of population beyond the increase of agricultural produce; and, lastly, on an interference on the part of the legislature with the currency, which was done by the Bank-restriction of 1797. Of these various causes Mr. M. introduces only the last; considering it probably as the one for which government was most directly responsible, and that which ought to be kept chiefly in view in a question of honour towards the public creditor. His various statements are given with clearness and impartiality; and the result is that, whether the computation be made by simple or compound interest, the balance is as yet to the disadvantage of the fund-holder: who will require a considerable succession of dividends, at the high value of money, to make up the loss sustained by him or his predecessors; and a farther series ere he can be pronounced a gainer by fluctuation, or his dividends be a fair object of reduction.

P. S. Since the preceding account was written, we have received a *Second Edition* of these Tables; in which some remarks that were suggested respecting the former have been considered, and alterations made accordingly. 'The assumption of interest at 5 per cent. on the nominal capital has been objected to, because it was not the real rate of interest contracted to be paid to the fund-holder; and the actual interest has been substituted for the assumed interest, on the debt existing in 1800, and on the debt contracted above that redeemed from 1801 to 1820.' In computing also the losses and gains of the fund-holder, in table 3., the value of money has been brought to one standard, viz. 3l. 17s. 10½d. for the ounce of gold.

Moreover, two errors of some consequence have been pointed out. 'In the first table, the total amount of funded debt was taken at

471,335,923l.,

471,335,923l., which included the redeemed debt, in place of 413,534,042l., which was the total amount of unredeemed debt, existing on the 1st February, 1800. In the second table, the debt contracted above that redeemed in 1800 had been included in the total amount of debt on the 1st February, 1800, in the first table, and therefore ought not to have been re-stated in the second table. In the present edition, both these errors have been corrected, first, by reducing the amount of funded debt in Table No. 1. to 413,534,042l.; and omitting Table No. 2.'

Art. 24. *A few plain Directions for Persons intending to proceed as Settlers to His Majesty's Province of Upper Canada, &c. &c.* By an English Farmer, settled in Upper Canada. With a Map. 12mo. pp. 100. 3s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1820.

It is natural for those who have seated themselves in the Illinois, or on Lake Superior, or elsewhere mid the wilds of America, to be desirous of enticing others to relieve their solitude. No man should emigrate, however, till he is morally certain of bettering his condition. When the final step is taken, if the sanguine expectations which he had been taught to indulge be not realized, and his visions of beatitude vanish in a far-distant desert, bitter indeed will be his disappointment, and wretched his condition.

If necessity, however, has cast the die, and emigration is become inevitable, it is of no little importance to decide on the spot where the evil may be least felt. By the 'English Farmer,' our own colony is strongly recommended in preference to the United States; and it is asserted 'as a fact,' (which we can neither verify nor disprove,) that, while English subjects are settling on the banks of the Ohio and in the Elysian prairies of the Missouri, — their spirit of enterprise and their money both nearly exhausted before they arrive there, — thousands of the citizens of the United States, attracted by the salubrity of the climate and the fertility of the soil of Upper Canada, are flocking to it, and taking without hesitation the oath of allegiance to the British government in order to reap the benefit of settling there. *If this be a fact*, it is a very striking one, and well worthy of meditation before we sail from our own shores.

As vessels are always going to New York from Liverpool, it is common for persons to sail in one of them, and afterward to proceed in steam-boats to Albany, Montreal, &c.: but it is here recommended to embark at once for Quebec in the beginning of April; because 'a considerable duty or per centage, as much, I believe, (the author says,) as 30 per cent. on the value of their baggage, is paid at New York by persons not intending to settle in the United States, but only passing through them to the British colonies.' It marks the simplicity of the writer's notions, to say nothing of the cleanliness of his habits, that, among his directions to passengers during the voyage, he gravely recommends them to wash their hands and faces every morning! As he does not say a word about shaving or cleaning the teeth, these operations are perhaps to be deferred till they get ashore on the other side of the Atlantic.

He

He recommends the emigrant to *locate himself* somewhere between the towns of Kingston and York, on the borders of Lake Ontario, 500 miles west of Quebec; and he gives some instructions which, we doubt not, are very useful and economical respecting the journey. One is, when a passenger has made up his mind to go on board any of the steam-vessels, 'to learn at what time the vessel goes, and to be on board in time.'

Amherst, or the Court-house, in the township of Hamilton, is a small town on the borders of the Lake Ontario, 115 miles west of Kingston, 75 east of York, and 500 west of Quebec: the great road from Montreal to York, which is the capital of the Upper Province, and the seat of government, passing through it. It is this neighbourhood which the 'English Farmer' seems to consider as peculiarly eligible for settlers of all denominations; and he gives the following account in its favour: — premising that the soil is excellent, and the climate salubrious, being milder in winter than it is between Montreal and Kingston, and not so hot in summer as it is beyond York and on the borders of Lake Erie; it is also well watered by creeks and small rivulets.

'The town of Amherst is two miles from the village of Cobourgh, and five miles from the town of Port Hope or Smith's Creek, both situated on Lake Ontario; and half-way between it and Cobourgh is the best and most extensive grist-mill in the province. In its vicinity there are also several saw-mills. The immediate neighbourhood of the town of Amherst is well settled and populous; and to the eastward, westward, and north-westward of it, are several extensive townships, already partly settled, and rapidly increasing in improvement and population. Good farms, suitable in size for *any* purchaser, with houses and other buildings on them, are always on sale in this district. At the distance of ten miles and a half due north of that town, is Rice Lake, a most beautiful piece of water, twenty-two miles in length from east to west, and from three to four miles and a half wide. The picturesque and interesting scenery which this lake, with its numerous small islands, thickly wooded to the water's edge, and its luxuriant fields of rice, presents to the view, is not, perhaps, surpassed by any either in the New or the Old World. It abounds with fine fish; and, in the spring and autumn months, immense flocks of wild ducks, geese, and other aquatic fowls, darken its surface. It produces an abundance of rice of an excellent quality; whence its name. The country which surrounds it is elevated from forty to sixty feet above its level; and although the land breaks upon it rather too abruptly, yet there is a fine shore, neither too bold nor so low as to be wet or swampy. The Otanabee, a river as wide as the Thames at London, discharges itself into the lake on the north side, at nearly an equal distance from each end of it. It is navigable for vessels of a considerable burden, for twenty miles from its entrance. Rice Lake has also a communication by water with the bay of Quinte, by means of the river Trent: there are, however, rapids for a short distance, which at present interrupt the navigation: but the government has it in contemplation to make a canal.

canal. A good carriage-road leads to the lake from Amherst. On its north borders *one* township (Otanabee), containing 75,000 acres, inclusive of 1800 acres as a plot for a town, has just been surveyed; and the applicants for the land were so numerous, that 50,000 acres were *located* within a week after it became ready for settlement. The town will offer very eligible situations for tradesmen and mechanics; and a quantity of land, on terms extremely liberal and advantageous, will be allowed them to build upon.

Two other townships, of nearly the same extent as Otanabee, will be ready for location, and distribution among emigrants, this spring and summer; from May to November. The soil is in general excellent; and, when the above canal is completed, the borders of Rice Lake will, without doubt, be one of the finest situations in the Canadas, as well for agriculture as commerce. The land, which is thickly wooded with maple, beech, hickory, elm, ash, bass, and some oak, pine, cedar, cherry, and walnut, may be cleared and fenced ready for the first crop, which requires no assistance from the plough, for about eighteen dollars, or four pounds sterling, an acre. The first crop is considered to pay all expenses of felling the timber, burning it, and fencing the land. A log-house may be built for from ten to twenty pounds sterling, according to its size; and a barn, capable of holding fifty quarters of wheat in the straw, for about five pounds sterling. A person would not require a barn the first year. Maple-sugar, equal in quality to the best West India sugar, is made by every farmer at no other expense than that of his labour. Some persons here make from 500 to 1000 pounds annually.

The land produces excellent wheat, from twenty-four to fifty Winchester bushels per acre, according to its quality: also good rye, barley, oats, and pease. The next best production is maize or Indian corn. From 40 to 100 bushels are produced on an acre of land from four quarts of seed. It affords wholesome and nutritious flour for domestic consumption, and is the best and readiest feed for pigs and cattle. When pigs are put up to be fattened, the corn is given to them in the cob without any preparation. Most farmers feed from ten to thirty hogs every year, each weighing from twelve to eighteen stone, of fourteen pounds to the stone. The pork, which is equal to any fed in England, is packed in barrels (with salt), containing 200 pounds each, and in general sells for 4d. or 4½d. per pound. Salt is bought for 4s. 6d. sterling a bushel.

The breed of horned cattle in this province is small, but hardy and thrifty. The excellent pasturage which this country affords for cows gives to their milk a peculiar richness; and the butter and cheese are not surpassed in quality by any in the world. The former sells for 1s. and 1s. 3d. and the latter for 8d. and 10d. a pound, of sixteen ounces. Good milch cows are sold for from 5l. to 7l. sterling each. Oxen are in general used for draught. A yoke of good oxen (two) may be bought for 16l. sterling. Beef sells for 4d. a pound.

The sheep resemble the Norfolk breed in England, being rather tall, and frequently horned, with darkish legs and faces. A
flock

stock will average each about five pounds of wool, of a *fineish* quality; and it is commonly sold for 2s. 6d. sterling a pound. Almost every farmer keeps from 20 to 100 sheep; and as families here manufacture their own wearing apparel, blankets, &c. in a manner which does infinite credit to their ingenuity and industry, the wool is mostly consumed for those purposes. Mutton sells at 4d. and 5d. a pound.

'The horses here are small, but spirited and extremely hardy. During the winter they are very much used in drawing sleighs; and, when on a journey, will travel with ease fifty miles a day. When cast loose, they take great delight in rolling themselves in the snow, which is frequently from one to two feet deep on the level ground. A good horse will fetch from 16l. to 24l. sterling.

'There is an abundance of domestic poultry in Upper Canada, the climate being very favourable to the production and rearing of it. Almost every farmer has a flock of geese. One brood goose in general brings up ten or twelve young ones; they are similar in their habits and unanimity to those common in England, but of a larger size, weighing mostly ten or twelve pounds each. Feathers are sold for 2s. 3d. per pound.'

We are also told that common industry, exerted on the rich soil of this country, will enable every body to acquire not only the necessities of life in profusion, but many of its luxuries; especially farmers, tradesmen, and mechanics. It is stated that a man with a hundred pounds in his pocket, or even fifty, may establish himself very comfortably; and the author concludes by saying that, if a person has only money enough to pay his passage over, his industry will soon raise him far above want; labourers being paid from four to six shillings a day, *besides their provisions*. Tailors, shoemakers, and other mechanics, are required in all parts of the province; and they who have already gone over have amply succeeded.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are very sorry that *Candidus* is displeased, and that his judgment (whether he be the writer of the work in question or not) does not coincide with ours: but we cannot prevent these discrepancies; and, while we observe to our correspondent that judgments may err, we need only farther add that we have no standard of taste.

To *M. A.* a communication will be made according to the address given, and a reason assigned for the silence hitherto maintained.

Apex is wrong from top to bottom, and on all sides. We should say nothing of the base, however, since his notion is baseless; and we hope that the word does not apply to his intention.

☞ The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published on the 1st of October with the Number for September.



THE
A P P E N D I X
TO THE
NINETY-FIFTH VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Kotzebuens Lebens geschichte.* 8vo. Weimar. 1820.
The Life of Augustus Von Kotzebue. From the German. 12mo.
7s. Boards. Boosey and Sons. London.

THE diffusive celebrity of *Kotzebue* as a dramatic writer attracted much interest to his name and his productions, while he was living; and the particular circumstances attending his violent death were equally calculated to maintain and preserve the public attention towards him. Of this latter event we have already spoken, in making our report of some publications relative to it, and especially a memoir of his assassin; (Rev. for February, 1820, p. 121.) and our readers, we doubt not, will now be prepared and willing to accompany us in a summary view of the life and writings of the dramatist himself.

Augustus Frederic Ferdinand Kotzebue, youngest son of a counsellor of legation, was born at Weimar, 3d May, 1761, and lost his father at two years of age. His mother, whose maiden name was *Kruger*, devoted herself to the education of her children, and inspired her son Augustus with an early taste for reading. A book called *Abendstunden*, or *Evening-hours*, was his first favourite: it includes the story of *Romeo and Juliet*, and is decorated with the engraving of a sleeping dog, to which the motto is appended, *Non omnibus dormio.*

Don Quixote and Robinson Crusoe were among his juvenile classics; and also Æsop's Fables, some of which he attempted to versify at eight years of age. At ten, he composed an Elegy on the death of a young girl. — In the following year, a company of strolling players, under the management of one *Abt*, came to Weimar, and performed at the riding-school: when *Musæus*, the novelist, who was acquainted with *Mad^e. Kotzebue*, took young Augustus for the first time to the play, which was *The Death of Adam*, by *Klopstock*. The extraordinary effect produced on the boy probably decided the choice of his career. When the curtain rose, he was "all ear, and all eye;" not a word nor an attitude escaped him; he felt indignant at any one of the spectators who happened to cough, or blow his nose; and he stamped with his feet on the bench, whenever a troublesome neighbour spoke to *Musæus*, and thus interrupted his absorption of mind. Never had he received so strong an impression; he was in raptures.

' When he reached home he was offended at being asked how he liked the play, and whether he had been amused? These expressions appeared to him much too cold, and he thought no happiness in this world equal to that of seeing a play performed every day. Robinson Crusoe vanished from his memory, for he had no theatre in his island. *Kotzebue* could not conceive how people could talk so quietly of the play, and attend to their ordinary business as before. He thought they would all run about the streets like the citizens of *Abdera*, crying out, half mad, "O thou ruler over gods and men! great, great *Abt*!" Whenever his mother, on being asked whether she should go to the play, answered that she was otherwise engaged, he could not comprehend how any other amusement could be preferred to a theatrical performance.

' It is impossible to describe the joy he felt soon after, when the Duchess Amelia, the friend of the muses, established a regular theatre at Weimar, which certainly was the best in Germany at that time. The family of *Seiler*, *Brandes*, and *Boeck*, and the immortal *Eckhof*, were its principal performers. Often did *Kotzebue* see *Eckhof* stroll in an undress and in a careless gait to the rehearsal, at ten o'clock in the morning; and admire in silence the incomprehensible being who in the evening, when he appeared as a king or minister on the stage, seemed to have been born to rule. No one ever yet attained *Eckhof*'s excellence in *Richard III.*, *Duke Michel*, *Odoardo*, and *Old Rode*.

' The theatre opened three nights in the week. His mother's permission to attend depended partly on his conduct and partly on his diligence. A lean French governess had at that time an absolute sway over the greatest pleasure of his life. He read and translated with her the works of *Madame le Prince de Beaumont*; and she daily gave him a ticket on which were inscribed the words

bon,

bon, well, or *médiocre*, middling, or the terrific *mal*, bad. In the latter case no permission could be obtained; his mother generally remained inflexible. Many times when Mademoiselle Louvel had already dipped her pen in the ink-horn to write this fatal word, Augustus seized her hand and bedewed it with tears and kisses until the hard sentence was mitigated, and the tremendous *mal* softened down at least into a *médiocre*.

His passion for theatrical performances grew daily stronger. He listened to them with an attention so intense, that he knew, for instance, *Lessing's Emilia Galotti* by heart, without ever having had the book in his hands, merely from its being frequently performed. He committed, in the same manner, *Engel's Grateful Son* to his memory, and prevailed with his young companions to perform these two plays with him on a stage constructed with screens. He himself undertook alternately every one of the characters.

The rage of performing all sorts of parts became a prominent feature in Kotzebue's disposition, and this rapid transition from one character to another impaired his own consistency, as he advanced in life.

His reverence for even the most indifferent performers was so unbounded, that he considered it a very great honour to speak to any of them. Every Sunday he hastened to one of the actors to learn what pieces were to be performed in the course of the week, for they had no play-bills printed. At home he infected all with his theatrical mania. To perform occasionally short pastoral pieces on a birth-day would not satisfy him. He and his companions attempted every new play; at last they even ventured upon *Gerstenbergh's Ugolino*, an excellent drama, less known than it deserves. Kotzebue was delighted with it because it required but few performers, and thought it particularly calculated for their private theatricals, not considering that each personage demanded an accomplished actor. He selected for himself the part of *Anselmo*, which he declaimed with all the fire of his youthful imagination.

Pantomimical ballets were got up on the ducal theatre at Weimar, in a very expensive style. These, too, Kotzebue strived to imitate, by having puppets dancing on a little wooden stage, by means of wires.

After he had been sent to the grammar-school, he renewed his dramatic essays, composed a tragedy in five acts concerning Catiline's conspiracy, and a comedy intitled *All's Well that Ends Well*. In his own account of his boyhood, he observed that he was a living echo, and that each exertion was an imitation of what he had recently read. Goethe, who visited in the family, took notice of the lad, and gave him a part to perform in an afterpiece which he had just written for the private playhouse of the court, thus bringing him within the circle of theatrical dilettanti. These opportunities of intro-

duction precociously evolved other propensities; and *Kotzebue*, like Shakspeare, had so early formed imprudent attachments with the other sex, that in his sixteenth year he was an experienced and desultory lover. His mother now judging it most decorous to send him immediately to college, Jena was the place chosen; and, that the deficiencies of his school-learning might be remedied, he was placed under a private tutor, with whom he read Terence and attempted Euripides. He took French lessons from *Boulet*, and Italian lessons from *Valenti*.

A set of students at Jena amused themselves with private theatricals; and into this society *Kotzebue* plunged immediately, acting for his commencement *Madame Schmerling* in *No more than Six Dishes*, and the part of a postillion in some afterpiece. In 1778, he attended his sister, who was recently married, to Duisburg, and was induced to pass the ensuing season at that college; the family probably conceiving that the superintendence of a respectable brother-in-law would help to repress *Kotzebue's* juvenile sallies: but here again he became the founder and introducer of dramatic amusements, and applied to the superior of a convent of Mennonists for the use of the cloister to become the theatre. This request was granted; probably under the supposition that the students meant to act only Latin pieces: but our Sheridan's comedy of *The Rivals*, translated into German, was one of the plays performed, and *Kotzebue* undertook the two parts of *Julia* and *Acres*.

In 1779 he returned to Jena; where he wrote a tragedy intitled *Charlotte Frank*, and induced his fellow-students to get it up, though with poor success. He next wrote *Wives à la Mode*, a comedy, which was better liked, chiefly because it contained satirical allusions to different persons in the town. He also composed an indecent parody of *Burger's* ballad intitled the *Wives of Weinsberg*, and some other reprehensible effusions. At a sort of debating society, which he attended, he undertook the defence of the Emperor Julian.

In his twentieth year, *Kotzebue* first became a publisher, and, under the title *Er und Sie*, issued a volume of poems, which was printed for *Wittekind* at Eisenach in 1781, and was sufficiently successful to cause him to be employed in a collection of *Tales by several Writers*. His portion of this work was separately printed for *Dyck* at Leipzig, under the title *Erzählungen*. — His third publication was a comedy called *The Triple Vow*. — In the autumn of 1781 he withdrew to Petersburg, having been authoritatively advised to quit Weimar in consequence of a satirical work, worthy of *Aristophanes*.

tophanes, which he had put in circulation, called *Bahrdr mit dem eisernen Stirn*, and for which he was about to be prosecuted. Count Goertz, the Prussian resident at Petersburg, having been acquainted in the family of Kotzebue's father while envoy at Weimar, to him the young man was recommended, and by him was kindly received. He introduced him to the German General Baur, who enjoyed the confidence of the Empress Catharine, and took pleasure in assisting to place his countrymen in the Russian service; and he employed Kotzebue as his private secretary, encouraged his theatrical zeal, suggested to him to dramatize some Russian incident, and thus called forth a tragedy in five acts, intitled *Demetrius, Czar of Moscow*. This play was acted with applause at the German theatre of Petersburg; and likewise a comedy, intitled *The Nun and the Lady's Maid*. He also undertook a periodical work at Petersburg, *The Library of Journals*, which consisted chiefly of selections from different German Magazines; and he dedicated a volume of fables and moral tales to the young Russian Grand-dukes. — General Baur died in 1783: but these efforts, and the General's testamentary recommendation of him to the Empress Catharine, procured for him the title of Counsellor, and an official employment at Revel, as assistant-judge in the court of Appeal. There he hired a villa called *Katharinenthal*, formed a private theatre, gained the affections of a woman of birth and fortune, *Frederica von Essen*, heiress of Lieutenant-General *Von Essen*, and married her in 1784. The General opposed the attachment, but became sincerely reconciled soon after the marriage. In the year 1785, having been made president of the regency of Esthonia, Kotzebue adopted the prefix *Von*, pretending to be nobly descended.

Kotzebue now indulged his genius, and wrote the *Hermit of Formentera*, and *Adelaide of Walsingen*, two dramatic productions; as also a novel called the *Sufferings of the Ortenberg Family*. In 1787, however, he fell into hypochondriacal melancholy, lost his usual vivacity of spirits, and was almost suspected of meditating suicide. Still his passion for the drama remained; and he produced *Misanthropy and Repentance*, *The Child of Love*, and a long series of successful plays. The former is perhaps the most characteristic and widely popular of all his productions: yet he wrote it during the height of his disorder. "Never," says he, "either before or since, did I feel such a rapid flow of thoughts and images; and I firmly believe that there are some maladies, especially those by which the irritation of the nerves is increased, that stretch the powers of the mind beyond their usual extent,

just as, according to report, diseased muscle-shells produce pearls."

In the summer of 1790 he undertook a journey to Pymont for the benefit of his health, having obtained from the Empress of Russia a year's leave of absence; and his wife accompanied him to Weimar, where she was brought to bed of a daughter, but died in the following November. *Kotzebue* then went to Paris, and published in the next year an account of his tour. The summer of 1791 he passed at Mentz, where he composed four plays, and at the close of the year he returned to Revel. In 1792, having resumed the functions of his presidency, he a second time entered into the bonds of matrimony, and was united to Miss *Christina von Krusenstern*, a near relation of the navigator of that name.

At Vienna, a dramatic poet is attached to the privileged theatre, and receives a considerable pension from the Emperor. In 1797, *Alxinger*, who held this situation, died; and it was offered to *Kotzebue*. It suited his taste, and he quitted Revel for Viena; where the climate, he thought, would benefit his health: — but he soon found that loss of dignity attended the change of employment, and much loss of peace of mind, in consequence of the differences that he had to settle between performers, rival poets, and sarcastic journalists. In 1798, therefore, he resigned, and went to Weimar; but the Emperor granted him an annuity of a thousand florins.

Becoming now unsettled, he thought of returning with his family into Russia, as his wife wished to rejoin her relations; and accordingly in April, 1800, he applied to the Russian minister at Berlin for a passport to Petersburg. A mysterious hint was given to him that he would do well to consider whether the climate of the north was suited to his health; and he was directed to specify exactly his intended route. He obtained the passport, however, and set off: but no sooner had he reached Polangen, the first town on the Russian frontier, than a Cossack mounted the box of his carriage, sealed his trunks, and escorted him to Mittaw, where he was separated from his wife and children, and found himself destined for banishment to Siberia. It is not known, or at least not stated in this biography, what was the nature of the suspicion which led to so severe a measure: but it is most likely that the Russian government supposed *Kotzebue* to have betrayed some confidence reposed in him, and had lent himself to the views of foreign powers. He printed an interesting account of the journey to Tobolsk, under the title *The most remarkable Year of my Life*. Scarcely had he arrived at the place of banishment, however, when he received letters of recall; and

on the 25th of August, 1800, the Emperor Paul conferred on him (as a sort of atonement) the estate of Worrokul in Livonia, with the gift of four hundred peasants.

He was next employed to describe the imperial palace of Michailoff; resided there in the most immediate neighbourhood of the Emperor, undertook to refashion the German theatre, and solicited to be created a knight of Malta:

‘ On the 11th of March, 1801,’ says the biographer, ‘ at one o’clock in the afternoon, *Kotzebue* saw the Emperor Paul for the last time, when he delighted his Majesty with the information that the account of the palace and the curiosities which it contained was almost finished. On the 12th of March early in the morning, the accession of the Grand Duke Alexander to the imperial throne was announced. The brilliant prospects, in which *Kotzebue* had indulged, vanished with the death of the Emperor Paul. He now anxiously wished to be allowed to return to Germany. On the 30th of March, he presented a memorial to that effect to Prince *Suboff*, the Emperor Alexander’s Adjutant-General; and being soon informed that his Majesty wished him to continue in his employment, he declared that he was impressed with the warmest gratitude, and should be happy to remain in the service of a monarch so amiable and so justly beloved: but that he could not superintend the German theatre, unless the young Emperor would graciously allow considerable reforms to take place. He was directed to point out those reforms. He therefore drew up a plan, which required an annual expence of sixty thousand roubles. This demand, which to *Kotzebue*’s great vexation was pronounced gigantic, was not acceded to. He therefore renewed his solicitations to be permitted to retire into Germany. His discharge was at length granted in the most gracious terms, towards the end of April. He retained all his pensions, and was named a *College Counsellor*. (*Kollegienrath*.)’

That *Kotzebue* was present in the palace of Michailoff, during that critical night which decided the accession of Alexander, is no doubt remarkable; and the more so as a pamphlet intitled *The White Bear*, which is supposed to have suggested the conspiracy for throttling the wild beast, has been ascribed, though no doubt erroneously, to his pen: That the author of that fable may have wished to throw it on *Kotzebue*, and that the banishment to Siberia had some connection with such imputation or suspicion, is perhaps credible: but we have not seen the document, and only echo rumours.

Having rejoined his wife and family, *Kotzebue* took them in 1802 to Berlin; where he produced two new dramas, the *Crusaders*, and the *Enchanted Castle*, and the King of Prussia conferred on him as a reward a lay-prebend (*Kanonikat*). *The German Country-Town* soon followed. Neither *Schlegel*,

who at this time came to Berlin to lecture on the drama, nor *Schiller*, felt much disposed to do justice to the popular talent of their brother-author.

‘ *Kotzebue*’s great activity was confined to literary occupations, the stage, and company. It is not likely that he changed his manner of living in the latter part of his life, as it was only by a constant adherence to it that he could find time for his inconceivably numerous literary productions. He generally rose before five o’clock in the morning, and smoking a pipe to his coffee, sat writing at his desk till eleven, when he received or paid visits, attended at rehearsals, or readings of plays, or took an airing in his carriage. He used to dine soon after one, and rarely accepted of invitations to dinner, because he preferred dining with his family. After a short nap, he resumed his seat at his writing-table. The evening was devoted to the theatre, to company, or to his domestic circle. He was fond of passing the summer evenings in the open air; in the winter evenings he liked to play at cards. He was particularly fond of Whist and Boston, and he felt so much interested in the game, that a continuance of bad luck, or faults committed by his partner, easily ruffled his temper, not, however, on account of his losing, for he never was avaricious. In every society he readily joined in the mirth and amusements of the company. He never liked to sit up later than eleven o’clock. The pleasures of the table had great attractions for him; not that he cared for a variety of dishes, but for well-dressed victuals. He was, however, extremely moderate both in eating and drinking, and would sometimes heighten his enjoyments by voluntary abstinence. His rooms were elegantly furnished; he liked to see every thing about him wearing the appearance of good taste and elegance, and could be bitter in his censures for any neglect in this respect. A good economist of his time, he was not less economical in his expences, without either avarice or covetousness. He was compassionate and charitable, were it only to keep every disagreeable impression at a distance. Though easily irritated, he was not less easily reconciled; and whoever had studiously observed him for a length of time, could not possibly hate him.

‘ In the year 1803, the hand of death deprived *Kotzebue* of his second wife *Christina von Krusenstern*. Doubts have been justly raised against the high sounding praises which he blazoned forth to the world of his felicity during his first union: but none are entertained about the almost unclouded domestic happiness which he enjoyed during this second union, the harmony of which was but slightly disturbed by his propensity to love-intrigues. The loss of a faithful, patient, domestic, loving, and careful consort, was now so much the more severe, as the number of his children was much increased. Yet he thought only of himself, and seeking dissipation from his grief in travelling, he fled from the scene of sorrow to Paris, where he had found considerable alleviation to his distress at the death of his first wife.’ —

‘ On

‘ On leaving France in the spring of the year 1804, *Kotzebue* went through Germany to his estates in Livonia and Esthonia. Here he sued for the hand of the Honourable Miss *Krusenstern*, a near relation of his second wife, who is reported to have recommended this union on her death-bed, to insure a good step-mother for her children. The marriage-ceremony was not long delayed, and he soon after entered with his third wife upon a long journey, from Livonia, through Riga, Berlin, Leipsick, Nürnberg, Augsburg, and the Tyrol to Italy, where he chiefly resided at Rome and Naples.

From Italy, *Kotzebue* returned to Berlin, and brought out several new plays: but, on the advance of the French armies beyond the Oder in 1806, he withdrew to Revel, and wrote a journal hostile to French ascendancy, which much contributed to awaken in Germany a spirit of patriotic independence. His politics, however, had a Russian tinge, and seemed not to admit any apprehension of danger in the Oriental direction. He had accepted the appointment of Russian consul at Königsberg, and held it until 1816; when he undertook the more singular office which he thus describes :

‘ On the 29th of November, 1816, he wrote again from Revel to his mother : — “ His Imperial Majesty has appointed me to make monthly reports of all the new ideas which are circulated in France and Germany, on the subject of politics, statistics, finances, tactics, public instruction, &c., from which reports, extracts are to be made for the different ministerial departments of the state, relative to the particular branch of each department. — The office has been entrusted to me in terms so flattering and honourable, that modesty forbids my repeating them. It is, besides, particularly suited to my inclination, and likely to be of the most important service to the Russian empire. How many beneficial and useful institutions will thus be communicated to the Emperor himself, and to his ministers, with which they otherwise would never have been acquainted ! I have therefore most gratefully accepted this new office. As Weimar is situated in the middle, between Leipsic and Francfort, and as the booksellers of these two cities may easily furnish me with all interesting new publications, both French and German, I proposed Weimar for my residence, and was graciously answered, that I might fix my abode wherever I liked. I think it is incumbent upon me to inform his Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Saxe Weimar, in what capacity I am coming to Weimar, and to obtain his permission to reside there. I therefore enclose a letter,” &c.

‘ On the 10th of January, 1817, he wrote once more from Revel to his mother : — “ It will, no doubt, be interesting to you, dear mother, to see some parts of the letter by which I was honoured with my new appointment. On this occasion, says the minister, I have had the satisfaction of witnessing fresh proofs of the esteem which his Imperial Majesty entertains for your merits, &c. — The
Emperor

Emperor wishes your office to be only literary, and that you should be considered merely as a traveller. His Majesty would have you to devote yourself entirely to scientific pursuits."

This literary agency was considered as a cloak for *espionage*, and rendered the residence of *Kotzebue* somewhat unwelcome; added to which, in the Magazine edited for the information of the Russian Emperor, he attacked the German universities in general as seats of ultra-liberal opinion; and the students, who assembled at Wartburg to keep a patriotic festival, he represented as plotters of revolutions. Bitter diatribes were hurled at him in return, for which he brought actions in a court of justice: but his adversaries triumphed in the tribunal at Weimar, and he deemed it advisable to change his residence, finding himself evidently shunned: In the summer of 1818, he took a tour through Hanover and Bremen; and towards the close of that year settled with his family at Mannheim. The final catastrophe is thus related:

' *Charles Frederick Sand*, the son of a privy counsellor of justice at Wunsiedel near Bayreuth, was at that time twenty-four years of age, rather stout, but well made, of a noble figure, and endowed with a most prepossessing, modest countenance. He had enjoyed an excellent education, and had been an exemplary youth in every respect. A dutiful son, an affectionate brother, a steady friend, a docile and intelligent pupil, he was esteemed alike by his teachers and by all who knew him. An ardent love of his country prompted him to fight as a volunteer in the short campaign of 1815, at the end of which he returned to the university of Erlangen, where he was studying divinity. He afterwards removed to the university of Jena, where in the summer, 1817, he met with a severe misfortune, which shook his frame so as to endanger his life. He was bathing in the river Saale, when he saw a fellow-student, who lived with him in the same lodgings, drowned before his eyes, without being able to save him: His spirits were long depressed by this fatal occurrence: but the commemoration of the Reformation, the independent agreeable life of a German student, and the increased ardour with which he prosecuted his studies, restored his mind to its wonted elasticity. He continued to distinguish himself by his application, his morality, his unwearied activity, his noble disinterestedness, and his zealous attachment to every virtue. He ardently wished to exalt his country by improving its morals. With this view, and aware that it behoved young men of education to set the example, he devoted all the faculties of his soul to render the bond of old students an instrument of national happiness. In the year 1818, Sand visited several parts of Germany. He passed four weeks at Berlin, at the house of a friend, a captain of the royal guards, who after *Kotzebue's* death was removed to a regiment of the line stationed at Posen, in the Prussian part of Poland. But wherever Sand went, he

he heard of *Kotzebue's* successful opposition to every plan of national regeneration. Disappointed in his hopes of meeting with a ready and general concurrence in his views, he returned once more to Jena, but with a heavy heart and melancholy forebodings of the future degraded state of his beloved country.

On the 9th of March, 1819, Sand left Jena, and proceeded on foot through Würzburg to Mannheim. Having inquired for *Kotzebue's* house, he twice called upon him in the course of the morning of the 23d, but he was both times refused admittance, once because *Kotzebue* never suffered himself to be disturbed when in his study, and the second time because *Kotzebue* had actually walked out at twelve o'clock. Sand returned to his inn, sat down to dinner at the ordinary, and joined in the general conversation, in the course of which many severe reflections were cast upon *Kotzebue* by some of the guests, to which he remained silent. He took but little of the wine, which, according to the custom of the country, was placed before him, but enjoyed his meal, and conversed much with a country clergyman, till the appointed hour when *Kotzebue's* servant had assured him that his master would be ready to receive him.

Kotzebue had passed the day in his usual manner. In the afternoon at five o'clock, when his family was receiving a visit from a lady, he was informed that a young stranger wished to speak to him. He immediately went to the adjoining room, into which Sand had been ushered by the servant. At the end of a few minutes a piercing cry was heard. The servants hastened to the room, where they found their master on the floor weltering in his blood. He was still wrestling with the stranger, who held with a firm hand the bloody dagger with which he had stabbed the unfortunate *Kotzebue* through the heart and lungs. Surrounded by his sorrowing family, *Kotzebue*, at the end of a very few moments, closed his eyes for ever. And whilst all was hurry and confusion, and a surgeon was sent for, Sand left the room, rushed down stairs, and reached the street, where he fell on his knees, and proclaimed with a loud and sonorous voice: "The traitor is no more, my country is saved! I am his murderer! thus must all traitors perish! Father in heaven! I thank thee that thou hast allowed me to perform the deed!" At the same instant he tore his clothes open, turned the dagger against himself, and inflicted a deep wound into his breast. The multitude that crowded about him carried him half dead to the hospital, where he was slowly cured of his wounds, and calmly awaited his doom, without ever expressing any contrition about the dreadful deed, until the 20th of May, 1820, when he was beheaded at six o'clock in the morning, in a plain between Mannheim and Heidelberg.

Kotzebue wrote his own epitaph in 1795, thus:

"The world persecuted him without pity.
To be calumniated was his sad lot.
Happiness he found only in the arms of his wife,
And tranquillity only in the bosom of the earth.

"Envy

“ Envy was on the watch to strew his path with thorns,
 But Love enlivened it with roses.
 May the Almighty and the world forgive him,
 As he forgives the world !”

It will probably be admitted that *Kotzebue* is the greatest dramatist of the Germans, and one of the ornaments of Europe. His comedies, tragedies, and farces are numerous, various, and lively : they have succeeded on every stage, from Moscow to Madrid ; and they have added a large supply of stock-plays to the rich repertories of London and Paris. He possesses all the resources of his art ; his plots are complete, his characters discriminate, his emotions rapidly transitive, and his scenery amusingly versatile. Wherever he alights, in Europe, America, or Asia, among the civilized or the savage, in the islands of the Pacific, in the saloons of Paris, in the pine-woods of Scandinavia, among Russians, or Germans, or Italians, or English, all his personages and circumstances are painted with distinct features, with appropriate colouring, in striking costume, and with living truth of nature. The ethic variety of his agents is boundless as that of his fables. *Lessing's* plays have severally expired, even *Emilia Galotti* and *Minna von Barnhelm*. Those of *Goethe* maintain a precarious existence : but *Clavigo*, *Iphigenia*, and *Egmont*, are rather read than acted ; and, if they display tenderness and paint feminine nature well, they mostly want manliness and animation. *Schiller* may be more majestic and sublime than *Kotzebue*, but he is not so natural, and he is wholly destitute of comic force and rapidity of conduct. He has not produced so many stock-plays : his *Wilhelm Tell* and *Mary Stuart* are the noblest. *Kotzebue* is richer than any of them in popular productions. His *Pizarro*, as we call it, is among the happiest efforts of the dramatic art ; it surpasses the *Alzire* of *Voltaire*, (itself a master-piece,) of which the scene is laid among similar persons. *Gustavus Vasa* is nearly the best biographical tragedy extant, and may vie with the *Thomas Lord Cromwell* of *Shakspeare*, to which in point of structure it bears a close resemblance. The *Stranger*, again, is a heart-rending drama, skilfully planned and written.

Still, it has, and with good foundation, been often alleged that *Kotzebue* delights in proposing moral paradoxes, and exhibiting the duties in collision with each other ; — giving us honest highwaymen, virtuous adulteresses, and conscientious bigamists : — but it may be pleaded in extenuation, that, when the dramatist produces an effect, he must have appealed to the instinctive sympathies of human nature. — A correct
 and

and complete list of the works of *Kotzebue* ought to have been attached to this biography. Our extracts have been taken from the translation, of which they afford sufficient specimens.

ART. II. *Idyllia Heroica Decem*, &c.; i. e. Ten Heroic Idylls, and one Book of Hendecasyllabic Poems; now, partly, published for the first Time; partly, in a Second and a Third Edition. By SAVAGE LANDOR: with a brief Inquiry concerning the Neglect of modern Latin Poetry. 12mo. Pisa. 1820.

WE consider this as an interesting little volume to several classes of learned readers. The author has certainly manifested a command of Latin that is very creditable to his industry; and many passages in the poems exhibit, we think, as much talent in their conception as taste in their expression. We will go farther, and venture to assert that several of the shorter pieces display a very finished elegance; and that, although we have something to object to the subjects both of the verse and the prose, yet the latter, especially, contains a variety of matter that deserves to be remembered and admired; much useful information being collected in it, and much original reflection well conveyed to the mind that is capable of appreciating it.

With this favourable preface, we shall enter on our task of criticizing the classical publication before us; which, indeed, has some singularities about it, besides its language. The author, as we learn from a few widely scattered intimations, is an Englishman, and was educated at Oxford, but has since left his country from mixed motives of pleasure and prudence. We heartily wish him the continuance of the former, as long as he desires that continuance himself*; and, with regard to the latter, we need not, we trust, express a hope for their removal. — Having said thus much, we think that we have honestly earned the right of expostulating rather freely with Mr. LANDOR on some future matters.

The poet boasts of having imitated no predecessor (*nisi semel, idque versibus tantum quaternis*) in the present Idylls. Now we are so deeply imbued with the sentiment of the late Cambridge Greek Professor, that “all modern Latin verse must be a cento, to be good for any thing; and if a cento, it must be good for nothing,” (except as an exercise of the various powers of the youthful mind,) that we are far from

* In the ‘*Gratiarum Actio*,’ p. 162., the author alludes to the second class of motives here mentioned.

joining in the feelings of complacency with which the present Latinist contemplates his own originality. In point of fact, moreover, that complacency is quite misplaced, and that originality is a non-entity. The present poet has had much too intimate an acquaintance with the classics, whether in subject or style, not to have imbibed large portions of their whole character, corporeal as well as spiritual. Accordingly, we shall see, (and our classical readers will judge from the quotations,) in our progress through the book, that the writer's practice is far better than his theory, and that the sober truth greatly exceeds his sanguine imagination. We shall not enter into the dry and useless question, which the author properly dismisses in haste and contempt, whether an 'idyll can be heroic?'; a question which seems to us nearly as sensible as whether "a woman can be a mathematician?" Grave doctors, by the way, decide in the negative: — but we shall acknowledge that, if Ovid had closed each of his stories in the *Metamorphoses* with its own natural conclusion, and had not detailed a connected series of wonders, he would have less opportunity for the redundancy of his poetical eloquence! — '*locum profecto minus opportunum habuisset suavissimus poeta verborum abundantiae.*'

This profound truism, which smelleth strongly of an identical proposition, shall not detain us longer from the first Idyll, which is called *Cupido et Pan*. Its title, we think, is quite sufficient to raise the "*ares Capripedum Satyrorum acutas*;" and we remember to have heard of a certain learned and refined Society, that would have hailed such an introduction to a new piece of Latinity. They would, however, have been disappointed in their usual delights, with the exception of one or two flying touches of the *satiric* taste: — but the gratification is only delayed in order to be fully satisfied in the subsequent Idyll, called *Pudoris Ara*; an altar, indeed, on which modesty is most decidedly sacrificed. We must here drop our metaphors; and, in the plainest terms, condemn the author's lubricity in the description of the Rape of Helen by Theseus.

" *A juvene et cupido credatur reddita Virgo*"

is all that Ovid says of it, in his *Cenone* to Paris: but Mr. LANDOR is minute indeed, and most culpable in his minuteness. In one of his *Phaleucian* (or, as we should here call them, *Phalleucian*) poems, he is guilty of the same indecency; and we meet with other passages closely bordering on the like offence. "*Verbum sat,*" we trust: but, lest it should

should not, we shall for a moment return to this topic of censure before we quit the work.

The names of the following Idylls are, *Sponsalia Polyxenæ*, in which the dying speech of Achilles is a spirited composition; — *Dryope*, or, "the Snake in the Grass," as it may properly be denominated; — *Corythus*, or, the Son of Paris and CEnone, killed by his father, in which we have some beautiful lines; — *Pan et Pitys*, an idyll as like Theocritus as any other; — *Coresus et Callirhoë*, a pretty love-tale; — *Catillus et Salia*; — *Veneris Pueri*, an agreeable idea of the celestial and terrestrial Cupid, but of which the writer has not, we think, made enough; — and *Ulysses in Argirippâ*; or, the tedious "more last sufferings" of the man *ὃς μάλα πολλά πλῆγας*, even after he had been restored to his Penelope. From these various works, (but all varied within the classical cycle, *ut Scriptor Cyclicus olim*,) we shall select the subjoined passages; reserving our more particular remarks for the conclusion of the article. We quote first a part of the last words of Achilles. Our readers will recollect the occasion.

' *Non quererer proavos quod habet Larisso quietos,
Non, matri æternum quod Tethyos aula patebit,
O Mors, at casus ulciscitur Ilion omnes
Cæde meâ, et nullâ porrecti in strage suorum!
Ut gravis huic instas capiti! proh vulnus acerbum!
Glebam aperite novam et lapides ramosque nigrantes,
Quæque Menætiaden habet urna, recondat Achillem.*
Solvite, funesto detrudite litore, puppim,
Et, vester sinat Atrides, accersite Phthiæ
Ludicra tractantem forsân juveniliter arma,
Sperantem et socio non hæredi esse parenti,
Qui ferat excidium quod Pelias hasta paravit.*

' *Deficio .. voces-ne meas auditis, an ægro
Omnia conatu expirant meque ipse fefelli?
Haud memini, jam tantâ animi caligine mensor,
Quæ jussa ediderim, quæ vota indicta relinquam,
Attamen hæc absint vobis oblivia nostri
Et, quanquam occulto sub vulnere distrahit orcus,
Primorum accipiar timearque recentibus umbris.*

' *Pyrrhe, puer longinque, vale! quæ cura juventam
Exercere tuam trepidet! quis lætus alumno
Chiron! heu manibus nunquam plaudenda paternis
Nec lyra nec jaculum nec primo in pulvere currus!*

The gloom and silence round the house of Hector, as it is passed by the unknown son of Paris, are well imagined and represented in verse:

* "Recondat Achillem." *Id umbræ pollicitus Il.* ↓ v. 82. v. 126. et 246.

' *Et dum prætereunt magni quondam Hectoris ædes
Manibus observant dilecti mella ferentes
Innuptas, viduas, puerosque parentibus orbos,
Et flent cum miseris horrentque silentia tecti
Et cuncta Hectoreo veluti frigentia letho.'*

We find also a tender little passage about the dog of Paris, who discovers his master dead; and these touches, we think, shew that even the *subjects* of the classics may be still *touched* with success, — though with puerile success indisputably.

' *Hic genus hybernæ exhilarat quod vocibus auram,
Pectore quod valido penetrat nemora aspra pruinis,
Quod cubat ante fores extremis pervigil annis,
Fidum pauperibus, fidum infelicibus unum,
Lumine languenti languentia lumina lustrat
Et domini lambit summisso corpore crura.'*

The contest of the two brother-loves, of Heaven and Earth, (alas! we fear too often like Eros and Anteros!) has several engaging lines: but we must resist the temptation of farther selections from the *Idylls*, and go on to the *Hendecasyllables*; for yet we have much to do with this author. Before, however, we leave the *Veneris Pueri*, we must highly compliment him on the sweetness and delicacy of that charming little composition.

Of the *Carmina Phæleucia* we may certainly say, as of old,

' *Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria ;'*

but without adding the conclusion, for certainly the majority here is good. We extract the following, descriptive, and satirical; presenting our readers first with the *Discovery of the Poppy*, an elegant little allegorical poem, happily built on one of the most curious portions of the heathen mythology:

' DE PAPAVERE INVENTO.

' *Horâ, ut mos mihi, pomeridianâ
Flaventem volui videre messem,
Atque corpora magna rusticorum
Instaurata cibo, quiete, lusu,
Et læta omnia carmine ac labore.
Ulmi tegmine sub patente sedi.
Permulti pueri, senes, puellæ,
Matres, ut sua pensa contigerunt,
Compressam segetem ad latus secabant
Siccataque prioribus diebus
Ponebant onus, aut gravem et recurcam
Torto strumine ne cadat ligabant.
Me prope advenit una, collocatque
Spicas glauca papavera exhibentes
Et rubras folio cadente florum.*

*Ut bellam alloquar, increpo otiosam,
 Quæ culmo addita liquerit venena.
 Mox altus sopor occupat jacentem,
 Et mî diva Ceres adesse visa,
 Subridensque "Meis amice regnis"
 Inquit, te mea dona sic latebant?
 Horum flava seges opima pars est,
 Sed pars altera, nec minor, papaver,
 Nec mortalibus accidit deorum
 Ægris utilius prius-ve munus.
 At cave, moneo, cave regressus
 Ne, si dixeris id domi foris-ve,
 Te Bacchus male Mænadesque multent,
 Quis felix nihil est furoris expers.
 Cum natam sequerer negataque esset
 Angoremque pati amplius nequirem,
 Raptor immiserabilis spopondit
 Herbam, quâ levior foret, reversæ;
 Invenique papaver ante portas,
 Ærumnisque gravissimis levamen
 Sic large super arva seminavi.*

The scholar will observe, and surely with satisfaction, the Catullian trochee in the first foot of some of these verses; and we may generally remark much invention, and much poetic feeling, in this fortunate trifle.

The address to the *Lacus Larius* (Lago di Como) is quite in the spirit of Catullus; and what can we say of higher praise? Our limits, however, will not allow us to quote it, and we must hasten to the prose-portion of this volume: but we must find room for a mysterious sort of epigram, (in the sense of funeral inscription,) which we here insert without any comment:

‘DE MORTE CAROLETTÆ.

*Quis deflere, venusta Caroletta,
 Te raptam potuit satis! popelli
 Corda saxea qui fuisse dixit
 De saxo Niobes ea esse dicat,
 Tam sunt omnia fletibus soluta.
 Matris ipsius, inquit, torosis
 Vix tenetur adulteri lacertis
 Effrænis pietas; quis autumaret?
 Corvorum velut inquinata nidis
 Cana fraxinus ad notos novembres,
 Gypsatisima bucca colliquescit.*

Before we quit these Hendecasyllables, we must also notice a very unpardonably bitter effusion, directed against the memory of Charles Fox. Will it be believed that in the year 1820 a scholar, and a gentleman, and a Briton, has had the cruel

levity to tell that great and good patriot, in a dozen lines which he calls his *epitaph*, that now he lies at rest, '*quâ nemo cubitum quatit*;' and that

'*Jacta est alea, et heu! silet fritillus.*'

When we recollect the long series of useful years, prematurely closed in the midst of virtuous exertions, which marked the later career of this noble statesman, how can we resent with sufficient warmth, or rather despise with adequate contempt, such an assault as the above?

The space which we have allotted to a general account of this work will preclude the insertion of all the remarks, which we had made on the several portions of it: but, having rendered what justice we could to the author as a poet in the way of panegyric, we must now discharge our duty to him as a prose-Latinist; and then our duty to our readers and to ourselves, in what remains to be observed. — Written in an even though not always elegant style, the *Essay on the Causes of the Neglect of Latin Poetry* is rather practical than metaphysical in its line of discussion; and more is said of the distinguished writers of this kind, than of the various ways in which such an exercise benefits the youthful understanding. We are certainly favourable to that exercise, when not overstrained in frequency nor over-rated in comparison: indeed, no pure Latin taste can be formed without it; and we know not what adequate substitute could be found for composition in Latin verse, whether we regard the early cultivation of the memory, or the imagination, or the judgment of the classical scholar. We see, also, what a just view the author has taken of the immortality (*humana loquimur*) of the antient languages; we acquiesce in his notions of the dignity which they throw over individuals and nations, and of their liberalizing and gentlemanly tendency; and (which he has *not* observed) we recognize the barrier that they are likely to present against the threatening inundations of Gothic barbarism and Gothic tyranny. We can enter no farther into the question at present, than to repeat our last idea that the liberty inculcated by the classics is their noblest characteristic; and that on *this foundation alone*, assisted by Divine help, can be built the hope of really, virtuously, and permanently regenerating Europe, out of the despotic ruin which too plainly appears to be hanging over it. How far the Laureate and his friend Mr. LANDOR will agree in this our addition to the notions of the latter, we are neither concerned in knowing nor capable of deciding. — Some awards of merit, we think, are made with rather a capricious hand in this essay. For instance; the allowed qualities

qualities of Petrus Bembus are extolled beyond all due measure; and Politian, on the other hand, is too much decried. It never can be a fair mode of judgment to deny the credit of a particular poem to its alleged author, because it is better than the rest of his works. Yet *this* the present critic has done, without any other assigned grounds; and Politian is to be robbed, on his *ipse dixit*, of the Elegy on the Death of Ovid.—We are thus brought to consider what Mr. L. says of Gray; to whose merits he evidently does not accord sufficient honour. He gives, for example, no praise to the Alcaic stanzas on the Grande Chartreux, excepting to one line; while he is hypercritical in his censure of metaphors, and not sufficiently aware of the admitted use of the hendyadis. To Milton, and to Jortin, he allots a handsome but not a discriminating meed of panegyric, for their Latin poetry; of Addison he speaks with very insufficient respect; and, in his enumeration of later English Latinists, while he praises Smith, Frere, and Tweddell, he omits Keate, Gandy, and last but not least, Fox. He is acquainted with the *Musæ Etonenses*, and should have diffused his praises over a wider circle.—The criticisms on the well-known Greek translation of “The Boast of Heraldry,” &c. are, in some respects, just enough, but they are old; and each of the lines which he would substitute for *Δωρα τυχας, κ. τ. λ.* we think is deficient in that pathetic cadence and expression, which the censured hexameter, with *all* its defects, assuredly possesses.

Καλα τα δωρα τυχας, ἀφροδιτας καλα τα δωρα,

or

Χρυσεα δωρα τυχας, ἀφροδιτας χρυσεα δωρα,

are very *school-boyish* attempts indeed.

We shall not follow this bold critic into his extraordinary attempt to rescue Ovid from censure, by discovering sundry instances of carelessness or imperfection in Virgil. Though we give him credit for the generosity of his motive, we cannot admire the judgment with which he has instituted such a defence. We again admonish him to reflect a little farther on the justifiable use of amplification in poetry. If he had already considered it sufficiently, he would not have objected to such lines as

“*Omnes calicolas, omnes supera alta tenentes;*”

and many others of the same description.

We have little room to insert many remaining observations. At page 227. a passage of Statius is attributed to Claudian;

H h 2

—“*simulant*”

— “*simulant fessos curvata cacumina somnos;*”

and it is hypercriticized in a miserable manner. Throughout the essay, however, some very valuable remarks are scattered; and some good new Virgilian readings and punctuations: but what does the author mean by his *excessive* condemnation of Juvenal? As he does not enter into the question of taste, (where, doubtless, much might be said against that splendid satirist,) we can only suppose that his censure refers to the lamentable indecencies of that poet. Does he recollect a line in the second satire,

“*Clodius accusat mœchos ?*” &c.

Some good hints occur on metrical subjects; — and, on the whole, the author is himself correct in metre, but more musical, we think, in his shorter verses than in his hexameters. How can a classical scholar, against the usage of the best authors, admit such words as *rèpulisse* and *rètulisse* into his heroic verses? — Again, can any thing be more affected than (in one of the passages which we have generally praised)

“*Lumine languenti languentia lumina lustrat ?*”

We might well subjoin

“*Pergite Pierides !*” &c.

Or what can be more prim and pedantic than

“*Omne sodalitiūque, refrigeriūque doloris.*”

We must now conclude; and, at parting, we will risk a word of honest advice. Sound classical food can alone give a man the *succus et sanguis* of the classical poets.

“*Qui Bavium non odit, amet tua carmina, Mævi.*”

Mr. Southey is a very valuable writer, and his friendship ought to be duly estimated: but how comes it that he who over-rates Wordsworth is sure to under-rate Pope?

ART. III. *Histoire de la Revolution du Piémont, &c.; i.e. A History of the Revolution in Piedmont, and of its Relation to other Parts of Italy and to France.* By M. ALPH. DE BEAUCHAMP, Knight of the Royal Order of the Legion of Honor. 8vo. pp. 212. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 7s. 6d.

CONSIDERABLE attention was excited in this country towards the late revolutionary movements in Italy, while they lasted; and the mode in which they terminated, we believe, disappointed many among us, and surprized more. Whether
that

that beautiful part of the globe will yet successfully assert the common rights of mankind, and endeavour to recover its former paramount glory, is of course more than we can determine: but the history of the recent transactions must be interesting both in itself, and as conducing to warrant the formation of an opinion concerning the probability of future efforts. We shall therefore take a particular notice of some tracts on this subject that have lately reached us.

In the work of which we have just given the title, the author professes not merely to trace the rapid events of the short-lived revolution of Piedmont, but to disclose its secret relations with other parts of Italy and with France. It is evidently written in great haste, but, if we may credit the doubtful evidence of M. BEAUCHAMP's own applause, his speed has not rendered him in any degree deficient in historical accuracy; for he is familiarly acquainted with the Piedmontese monarchy, 'its elements, its resources, its actual and relative strength.' He is professedly a royalist of the old *regime*, and has evidently contemplated these extraordinary movements through the medium of strong prepossessions. He lifts up a warning voice to kings, and tells them that the revolutionary conspiracy is lurking in every country, and, if a single refuge is left to it, will regain its strength and prepare new attacks; and he deprecates it as the consequence of this unnatural posture of things, that the weakness and incapacity of certain governments should perpetually reduce a part of Europe to the hard alternative of being oppressed by the sabres of revolutionists, or protected by the lances of Cossacks; — concluding his exhortation by reminding them of this eternal truth, that "forbearance towards the bad is injustice to the good."

For ourselves, we have formed, as well as other speculators who observe the portents of the times, an opinion on the subject; and we do not, with M. BEAUCHAMP, wholly attribute them to the wanton and gratuitous efforts of revolutionary zeal on the one hand, or, on the other, entirely to the vices and oppressions of the governments against which they have been directed, great as those vices and oppressions are. The causes we conceive to be mixed, and that each of them has had its due and appropriate influence. Suspending these speculations, however, for the present, we shall direct our attention to the work as a mere historical account of the events themselves, and bearing such weight as the writer's authority can give to it.

M. DE BEAUCHAMP is observant of a very useful French maxim, and "begins with the beginning;" sketching the
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Piedmontese

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Piedmontese monarchy from its infancy, till it became an important member of the European confederation for the two last centuries of its existence. In his first chapter, he traces the influence of the French Revolution on the states of the house of Savoy. Victor Amadeus III. lost almost in a moment 'the work of eight centuries, and the hopes of the future.' Savoy and the province of Nice were invaded; and in six weeks the cap of liberty carried the Revolution from the Alps to the Rhine. The Sardinian government at first made struggles which were inadequate to its resources, but the first campaign deprived it of Savoy and Nice. With a military force not exceeding 50,000 men, and the supply of 6 or 7000 men from Austria, formed chiefly of incomplete regiments, it contrived to protect its frontier for three years, and contributed to the common support of Europe with various fortune. In the spring of 1794, however, the French Republic renewed "the war of the Alps" with fresh ardour; and Piedmont, by the peace which had been concluded between Spain and France, was exposed to the greatest danger, since the army of the Pyrenees was thus ready to be directed towards the Alps and to join that of Italy: but the firmness of the King of Sardinia was yet unshaken. In 1795, the success of *Schoerer*, the precursor of *Bonaparte*, prepared the invasion of Italy; and neither prayers nor remonstrances, nor the dictates of policy, could awaken the cabinet of Vienna from its lethargy. The author therefore imputes the fall of Piedmont to the vacillations and weakness of the Imperial court. For a long time, the energy of Victor Amadeus rose superior to his fortunes. "I prefer," said he, when submission was recommended to him by his nobility and ministers, "to bury myself beneath the ruins of Turin." — At length, however, overcome by the advice and remonstrances of *Costa*, the Archbishop of Turin, he acceded to the terms proposed to him. 'This capitulation, the effect of the discouragements, the defeats, and the alarm of Turin, promoted also by treason and the universal hatred in which the Austrians were held, was the sepulchre of the monarchy, which was soon afterward extinguished with Victor Amadeus.' — He was succeeded by Charles Emanuel IV., who united the private virtues of his father and his grandfather, and, if private virtues could have preserved his crown, he would have continued the happy sovereign of a happy people: but 'a king,' says M. DE B., 'without authority, a prisoner to his enemies, the play-thing of their insolence, wounded in all his feelings, and an impotent spectator of the wrongs of his people, the tears of his family, and the annihilation of his power, Charles Emanuel IV. retained

no remnant of the sceptre of his fathers but the power of affixing his signature to his ruin and disgrace.' — 'Towards the end of February, 1799, when the renewal of the war with Austria appeared inevitable, the deposition of Charles was determined. General *Joubert*, by one stroke, and in spite of the faith of treaties, took possession of Turin and the principal towns of Piedmont, and drove this unfortunate prince and his family by military force from his states.' He embarked for Sardinia, leaving a solemn protest against the violence of the French Republic and its Generals.

Chapter II. comprizes the succession of events from the incorporation of Piedmont into the French Republic; — the campaign of 1799, in which Austria was supported by Russia, and in which both powers received the most essential aid from the zeal and courage of the Piedmontese; — the loss of Italy consequent on the ill-fated councils of Austria; — the abdication of Charles Emanuel IV. in 1802; — the re-establishment of Victor Emanuel V. by the confederation of Europe; — the subsequent aggrandizement of his states; — the political situation of the Piedmontese monarchy in 1820; — and what the author terms the revolutionary conspiracy of 1820 and 1821. Here we have the first mention of the celebrated *Carbonari*, to whom so much of the revolutionary movements of the south of Europe has been attributed.

'Napoleon, by the erection of the kingdom of Italy contiguous to Piedmont, which was one of the extremities of his vast empire, created a perpetual state of rivalry and clandestine intrigue. The usurpation of Naples, where he established successively his brother and his brother-in-law with the title of king, served only to foment more and more this division of the Italian people. Such was the policy of Napoleon: who feared that the public spirit of Italy would become dominant. It was necessary that the French empire should sooner or later absorb all Italy, or that Italy should shake off the yoke and be independent; and it was the secret desire of independence, mingled with the revolutionary spirit, which afterward gave birth to the sect of the *Carbonari*: a sect which in many respects resembles the society of the "*Union for the Virtues*," formed in the year 1813 in Germany. At first, it made but little progress in Piedmont, where the monarchical spirit prevailed.'

When the power of Napoleon was at length subverted, the King of Sardinia returned to the birth-place of his ancestors; and he had scarcely repassed the Alps, when the Congress of Vienna aggrandized him with the whole territory of Genoa. Turin now recovered much of its former splendor. 'Four millions and a half of inhabitants, a fertile soil, and a country in which property always preserved its salutary influence,

formed the basis of the Piedmontese power, so important from its geographical interposition between France and Italy. The capital was enlarged and embellished ; and the whole kingdom resumed its prosperity.'

With much diffuseness of declamation, the author proceeds to shew that, in spite of the external tranquillity of Europe, the seeds of revolution and disorganization still lurked in Italy and France. Though, he says, 'the allied monarchs recognized legitimacy, they did not dethrone the Revolution;' and he arraigns the policy of the French government, which nourished that deadly spirit by heaping favours and condescensions on the avowed supporters and the most zealous champions of the revolutionary system. The French ministry separated the King from the royalists, and the contagion of France spread into Italy. From that time, he adds, France was the centre of an anti-social organization. The Duke *de Richelieu*, by abandoning the helm at the close of 1818, encouraged the enemies of moral and social order, and the revolutionists of France gave the signal to the revolutionists of Europe. Thus the grand democratic and *Bonapartist* faction, which had been originally engendered in the French Revolution, was recognized under different names in different countries, and extended its ramifications to the Alps, the Pyrenees, and the Rhine; where the people, averse from a foreign yoke, and still nurturing the secret hope of the independence of which they had never tasted the sweets, lent a ready ear to the suggestions of the revolutionists of Paris and the *Carbonari* of Naples.

The combustible elements, we are told, which had been long in preparation, began to burst forth about the period of the assembly at Carlsbad. The chiefs of this projected insurrection, at Paris, had resolved that the conflagration should be first lighted at the southern extremities of Europe. Spain, therefore, was selected to make the signal; Naples, Lisbon, and Piedmont were to follow the impulse given to them at Madrid and Paris; while, England receiving at the same time a decisive concussion, the powers of the North were to be wholly occupied by Prussia, Poland, and the Greek provinces. 'Never,' says M. DE BEAUCHAMP, 'was a more extended and more infernal plot formed.'—The year 1820 was chosen for this revolutionary convulsion. Spain was soon in flames: but at Paris the assassination of a prince of the blood, and the horror which it excited, gave a short check to the movements. A wavering policy, however, having left the root of the evil untouched, the conspiracy was resumed with fresh ardour; and this spirit was not confined to the

lower

lower classes, but gained ground among that portion of the Piedmontese nobility who had received caresses and honours from *Bonaparte*; and of whom the younger branches had seen with regret the fall of the Imperial power, under which, by virtue of the French civil code, an equal share of hereditary property was established. The fever prevailed, however, with most intenseness among the younger members of the army, whose minds had been occupied with ideas of the regeneration of Piedmont. A secret affiliation, under the direction of the committee at Paris, had already been formed, among the students and the military youth; and secret committees were also instituted at Turin and Alessandria.

The success of the Spanish, Neapolitan, and Portuguese revolutions gave the instigators new encouragement, and they devised means to defeat the congress of Troppau, the Holy Alliance, and other measures adopted by the allied monarchs: — but the great object was to anticipate the attack of Austria on Naples, and for this purpose intermediate committees between France and Italy were established. In the mean while, the Sardinian administration found that many regiments had been gained over, and that the opposition to Austria became every day more menacing. They adopted, therefore, the most decisive measures, and arrested the Marquis *de Pui* and the Count *de Perron*, two of the anti-Austrian chiefs.

Although the Revolution, which was on the eve of bursting forth in Piedmont, was closely analogous to that of Naples, its basis was more extensive than that which had been instigated by the *Carbonari*. To vague ideas of liberty and independence, were added a hatred of the Austrian yoke and the pride of restoring the independence of Italy. A considerable portion of the nobility were captivated with these projects; and they persuaded the young Prince of *Carignan*, heir-apparent to the crown, to enter into many of their views, particularly those which regarded the Austrian influence. A small work called *The Projects of Austria on Italy*, calculated to inflame these passions, was about the same time printed in France and circulated in Piedmont with great industry. It preached up the general doctrine of Italian independence, and exhorted a junction between the Neapolitan and the Piedmontese troops against those of Austria; promising also the incorporation of Lombardy with the crown of Sardinia.*

* We gave a brief account of this pamphlet in our last Appendix, p. 503., from which it will be seen that the views of its author and those of M. DE BEAUCHAMP are sufficiently opposite.

The time most fitted for the rising of Piedmont was judged to be before the Austrians should pass the Po on their march to Naples: but the Piedmontese conspirators did not deem it expedient to expose themselves to the first attack of the Austrians; who, having only the Tecino to cross, would, in concert with the Sardinian government, be soon enabled to extinguish the insurrection. For this reason, the first attempt made by the students of Turin was without difficulty put down by the regiment of guards. Doubtful, therefore, of the dispositions of the capital, they at last resolved to make the experiment on the frontiers of Lombardy. The allied sovereigns at Laybach, who well knew what was going on, looked to the Turin government for prompt and decisive measures; and with this view Count *Bubna* was sent to Turin. The danger increased every day:—but the Sardinian government having arrested a person named *Leblanc*, who was employed as an agent between Paris and Turin, and also the Prince *Cisterna*, an active partizan of the conspiracy, the whole of the secret confederacy was unveiled. Little dismayed, however, by this circumstance, the agitators hastened the final developement of the plot. The Austrian army had now passed the Po, and the committee at Paris became more and more anxious for the insurrection in Piedmont. A general alarm, therefore, was diffused, that Austria intended to occupy its fortresses, and to invade the whole country: a rumour which aided the insurrection to break out, and *Alessandria* first reared the standard of revolt, on the 9th of March, 1820.

In his third chapter, M. BEAUCHAMP pursues the narrative of the Piedmontese insurrection, from the defection of the garrison of *Alessandria* to the abdication of the King, the regency of the Prince *Carignan*, the provisional junta, and the proclaiming of the Spanish constitution. The King, it is said, was resolved to proceed immediately with some troops on whom he could rely to *Alessandria*, the centre of the military conspiracy: but the alarm increased, and news arrived of the revolt of *Novarro*, *Fossano*, and *Pigneroli*. The government was terrified, and it was proposed that the Prince of *Carignan* should go to *Alessandria*, for the purpose of recalling the troops to their obedience: but this resolution was soon abandoned. Captain *Ferreri*, with 100 men of the royal legion, proceeded out of the new gate; and, at about 300 paces from the city, that officer addressed the soldiers, calling out for *the King, and the Spanish constitution*, and telling them that no alternative was now left to them but to conquer or die! All of them unanimously exclaimed, “We will

will conquer or die together!" They were soon joined by a number of students, armed with sabres and small arms, to the amount of about 400, bearing the tri-coloured flag of the *Carbonari*, black, blue, and white; with these words inscribed on it, "*The Spanish Constitution.*"

As yet, no actual movement had taken place in the garrison of Turin, which was without orders, and left to itself: but on the morning of the 12th, seven companies of the regiment of Aosta, with 200 artillerymen and 500 students, obtained possession of the citadel, on the plea that the Austrians were approaching. The patriotic standard was then raised, and the constitution proclaimed. An immense crowd assembled on the glacis: the drawbridge was raised; the troops were ranged on the curtain, and the artillery at the batteries, crying out "*The Constitution for ever!*"

We cannot follow the author regularly through all the details, which, indeed, have been reported in the public journals with sufficient accuracy; and we have selected only those features of the insurrection, which we believe are not so generally known in England.—The abdication of the King followed, and it was decided that the Prince *de Carignan* should exercise the provisional sovereignty under the title of Regent. At one in the morning of the 13th, the monarch signed his abdication, and his ministers gave in their resignations at the same time; the royal resignation being accompanied by a declaration of the King's engagement with the three great powers, by which he had bound himself never to adhere to any constitution that should be imposed on him. Just as he was setting out for Nice, Victor Emanuel saw the Prince, who received his adieux and those of the Queen.—It is stated that the Prince *de Carignan*, intimidated by the boldness of the insurgents, and the cries of the populace for the Spanish constitution, appeared in his balcony at nine in the evening of the same day, to announce that this constitution should be promulgated. 'In fact,' says M. DE B., 'the Prince, who was by this time under the influence of the conspirators, proclaimed as the law of the state the constitution of Cadiz, and in the course of the next day he organized a provisional junta. Thus the principal authors of the Revolution succeeded in turning a monarchy of eight centuries into a hot-bed of anarchy.' (P. 61.) On the 16th of March, the Prince took the oath to the Spanish constitution, in presence of the provisional junta, who on the same day commenced their labours.

In chapter IV., the writer endeavours to shew that the object of the new government was to aid the designs of the *Carbonari* of Lombardy

Lombardy against Austria, and to effect a diversion in favour of the Revolutionists of Naples. Under the pretext, therefore, of counteracting the supposed entry of the Austrians into Piedmont, they sent a considerable part of their forces to the Tecino; and the Austrian ambassador, at the instance of the people, was dismissed from Turin.

It is evident that nothing could have been more unskillfully prepared than this Revolution; and we can hardly concur with M. DE B. in attributing so much plan and system to its authors. What could such an army as that of Piedmont effect without co-operation, and where could they expect this co-operation? In the simultaneous rising of all Italy, we may be told:—but of this rising there were as yet no indications. Then, from the Neapolitan troops:—but they were separated from them by the whole of Italy, and the Neapolitans had their own business on their hands.

‘The Revolution,’ continues the writer, ‘had commenced but a few days, when they who had conceived and prepared it became wholly incompetent to direct it. Events which they had not supposed possible, the opposition of the King, his refusal to receive the law from his subjects, and at last his abdication, had changed the aspect of affairs. The presumption and criminal audacity of the conspirators having disgusted all respectable persons, and terrified all who had any thing to lose, ended in completely undermining their own work.’

Then followed the resignation of the young Prince-Regent. In the night of the 21st, he proceeded secretly with a division of light artillery and two regiments of the Savoy light-horse, whom he met by appointment at some distance from the city, to put himself under the orders of the Count *de Latour*, governor of Novarro. About this time, the two Emperors had a conference of some hours: directions were given to form a new Austrian army in Lombardy of 70,000 men, exclusively of the troops sent to Naples and the garrisons that occupied Venetian-Lombardy; and 100,000 Russians were ordered to advance towards the theatre of war. In Upper Italy, a considerable Austrian force was already assembled: Mantua was full of troops; and Milan was strongly garrisoned. Thus all communication was cut off with Piedmont: the bridge over the Tecino was destroyed; and 8000 Austrians advanced by forced marches to Pavia.

At Genoa the people were, according to M. BEAUCHAMP, essentially revolutionary: but the garrison, consisting of 6000 men, remained tranquil for some time under the administration of Admiral *Desgenèys*, the Governor-General, notwithstanding what had happened at Alessandria and Turin. The insurgent party, however, prevailed; and
the

the populace, aided by the troops, constrained the Admiral to sign his own deposition, and the nomination of an administrative commission. This revolt animated the insurrection at Turin; and the Count *de Santarossa* issued, in quality of "Regent of the War," an appeal to the Piedmontese youth to take arms, and a sort of formal declaration of war against Austria.

In chapter V., however, we find that the decrees of the junta, orders of the day, proclamations, &c. &c., did not create a Piedmontese army capable of taking the field; though the question was evidently of such a nature as only to be decided by arms. The invasion of Naples also began to diffuse a considerable panic; and though the Piedmontese revolution had raised the hopes of the Parisian *Carbonari*, who no longer disguised their sentiments or their projects, — and who are said to have avowed their connection with the *Carbonari* of Italy, the *liberales* of Spain, and the *radicals of England*, — yet the projects of the factious were wholly disconcerted: order was restored at Grenoble, where an attempt at a rising had been made; and the Piedmontese revolutionists were thus deprived of one of the principal supports on which they had calculated. The committee of the *Carbonari* at Milan had been put down by the Count *de Bubna*; and Chamberry and Savoy had been kept free from the contagion by the precautions of the Count *Salmour d'Andezeno*, Governor-General of Savoy, and the fidelity of the senate of Chamberry. In the meanwhile, the Duke of Geneva, invested by the abdication of Victor Emanuel, his brother, with all the powers of the monarchy, had declared null and void all public acts posterior to that abdication. Nice, also, as well as the duchy of Savoy, was unmoved by the revolutionary spirit; and the royal family, who sought a refuge in that city, were received with the most affectionate acclamations.

'What then,' exclaims M. BEAUCHAMP, 'could the *Carbonari* of Piedmont expect, when reduced to a few anarchical juntas, and two military arsenals, Turin and Alessandria; with an army divided and without discipline; a royal army at Novarro; an Austrian force on the other side of the Tecino; two royalist-garrisons in Savoy and Nice; and Lyons and Dauphiny superintended by a marshal of France, faithful and on his guard?'

Chapter VI. Alessandria was the focus of the Piedmontese revolution. Here a special junta was established, calling themselves "The Italian Federation," who inscribed on their flags *Regno d'Italia*; and the students were formed into regiments, under the name of *The Legion of Minerva*. They had already exterminated *on paper* the Austrian armies, and announced

to the Sardinian King that they would recognize him under no other title than that of King of Italy. This junta, however, had excited the jealousy of the junta at Turin, and it was soon dissolved by the revolutionary chiefs of that city. At length, the issue of the Neapolitan insurrection was made known, in spite of every artifice to suppress the intelligence; and *the Sub-alpine Sentinel*, the official journal of the Piedmontese revolution, announced in terms of the deepest despair the entry of the Austrians into Capua and Naples. Meanwhile, the leaders of the insurrection concentrated towards Alessandria all the troops on which they could rely, and took a position with strong detachments on the Tecino; while, on the opposite side of that river, the Austrians received daily reinforcements.

In this menacing attitude of the two parties, the junta were summoned, in a despatch of Prince *de Carignan*, to resign the executive power to Count *de Latour*, Governor-General named by the King; and on compliance a general amnesty, and a charter like that of France, were promised: but this measure was disavowed by the Duke of Geneva, who uniformly disclaimed any terms with the insurgents. The minds of all were now agitated with uncertainty, and their eyes directed to the hostile preparations in the two camps of Alessandria and Novarro.

It is remarked by M. DE B. that the whole of this revolution was a mere conspiracy of officers who wanted to be made Generals; and that the soldiers took so slight a part in it, that in some corps it was necessary to distribute 36 francs to every man, to induce them to march. About this time, the capital assumed a new aspect, and symptoms of decided opposition to the revolutionary authorities began to appear among the inhabitants. Yet they proceeded against Novarro, and, having summoned the place without receiving an answer, commenced a fire. These operations determined the loyalists to act offensively, and to effect a junction of the two armies of Austria and of Piedmont. The advanced guard of the Austrians accordingly arrived near Novarro, at two in the morning of the 8th of April. A part of the royalist troops defended the ramparts, the rest took a position on the right, and the Austrians were posted on the left. The very sight of the imperial troops, according to the present historian, was the signal of retreat to the revolutionists; and in a few minutes they abandoned the field, without halting till they had arrived behind Agona, where they were with some difficulty rallied. Pursued and attacked in front by the troops under General *de Latour*, and on the left wing by General *Bretschneider*, their line fell into disorder, and they were followed by the advanced guard

guard of the Austrians and Piedmontese to Verceil. They lost two pieces of cannon, and 100 prisoners, among whom was Colonel *Morani*, one of the principal authors of the insurrection: but the famous battalion of *Minerva* fled with such celerity that it did not lose a single prisoner. The body of the army retreated towards Alessandria, to protect themselves under the fire of its garrison; others went towards Turin; and the rest threw down their arms and dispersed.—The news of this defeat, and of the junction of the royalist and imperial armies, which arrived about the same time, diffused a general panic among the junta; and the result was the giving up of the keys of the fortress to General *de Latour*, who made his entry into Turin at the head of 6000 of the King's troops.—The public attention was now directed to the transactions of Alessandria; where, at the first summons of the advanced guard of the Austrians, the garrison, consisting of 1000 men, surrendered prisoners of war, and the city was entered by the Austrian General in the name of the King of Sardinia.

Thus ended the drama of the Piedmontese revolution, which, says M. de B., will long be an example of the fragility of such enterprizes. 'The whole series of its events seems to have been guided by the finger of Providence; who, in the short space of five days, extinguished a revolution which had been secretly going on for five years.'

We have now, without any material admixture of our own sentiments, given an impartial analysis of the statements and exhibited some of the reasonings of M. DE BEAUCHAMP. It is remarkable, however, that his book is defective in that species of information, which we most anxiously expected from a writer who undertakes to trace the moral and political causes of the insurrection of Piedmont; and without which it can at best be only imperfectly developed:—we mean, the secret societies of the *Carbonari*. The existence of this sect is indeed presumed in every page of the work; and, if we believe the author, it has been cherishing its projects in all parts of Europe, existing in defiance of the municipal law, and under the very nose of the police and magistracy of every country. A most improbable presumption!—That many well-meaning persons believe in these secret and subterraneous horrors, renewing the dangers of the *Illuminati* and the *Jacobins*, and that the present writer may desire and deserve to be the follower of the Abbé *Barruel* in denouncing them, may be true: but we are sceptical as to the extent and size of the mischief; and, however we may be inclined to respect these

"Fears of the brave, and follies of the wise."

we cannot but think that this mysterious hostility to the established governments of Europe has, in many instances, been exaggerated far beyond its real magnitude and importance.

ART. IV. *Précis Historique sur les Révolutions, &c.; i. e. An Historical Summary of the Revolutions in Naples and Piedmont in 1820 and 1821; with authentic Documents concerning these Events, and a Map explanatory of the Military Operations.* By Count D***. 8vo. pp. 224. Paris. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 7s.

THIS is also a tract on the subject of the Neapolitan and Piedmontese Revolutions; and as in the preceding article we have treated sufficiently of the latter, we shall now confine ourselves to a rapid recapitulation of the events which led to that of Naples. Count D*** appears to be as staunch a royalist as *M. de Beauchamp*, but his work purports only to be a dry statement of facts.

Early in July, 1820, about 150 men of the Royal Bourbon regiment of cavalry, joined by a few regiments of infantry and some bodies of armed peasants, took possession of the defiles that lead to Poli, where they found a military-chest containing 22,000 ducats. They then mounted the national cockade, and proclaimed the constitution which *Murat* had promised. The troops ordered from Naples to quell them joined the insurgents, and turned back to that capital with cries of "The Constitution for ever!" General *Pépé* being at their head. In a short time, a regiment of infantry and another of cavalry, stationed about half a mile from Naples, united themselves to their comrades, with their arms and baggage, demanding the Spanish constitution; and the disorder spread so rapidly among the soldiers, that Fort St. Elmo was abandoned by its garrison. The King declared by proclamation his assent to the demands of the army, and promised to grant a constitution in eight days; a period sufficiently short for so important a business, but too distant for the impatience of the troops, who insisted on an instant signature of the constitution. The King having, on the plea of ill health, devolved on his son the duties of royalty, that Prince pledged himself by proclamation to accede to their requisitions; and on the evening of the 5th, the monarch, by another proclamation, confirmed his son's promise, and engaged on the faith of a King to swear to the constitution before the provisionary junta. The army, composed of troops of the line, the national militia, and armed peasants, now marched into Naples under General *Pépé*.

Pépé: the junta was formed; and the oaths were taken by the King and the Prince. 'The Neapolitans,' says Count D***, 'inflamed with the liberal ideas which had been the cause of the Revolution, ostentatiously assumed the antient names of their provinces, and styled themselves Arpinians, Daunians, Lucanians,' &c. &c.

In chapter II. the Revolution of Palermo occupies the Count's attention. The sanguinary tumults of that capital are so recent in the recollection of our readers, and so little is here added to the information communicated by the public journals concerning that event, that we should not be justified in recapitulating the horrors of a day, which will long be remembered as a dreadful instance of the fury of a licentious soldiery and a debased populace. Two thousand lives were destroyed on that occasion. — It is well known that General *Pépé* was sent against Palermo, which soon returned to its subordination to the Neapolitan government. The author relates an anecdote which does honour to the firmness and promptitude of the Prince of Calabria.

'A large band of Neapolitans ran tumultuously to his Royal Highness, and vehemently demanded that the lives of the Sicilians then in Naples should atone for those of the Neapolitans whose blood had been shed in the revolt of Palermo. Finding that all his endeavours to pacify this infuriated multitude were ineffectual, "Well!" exclaimed he, "fly to vengeance, and begin with my three children, for they were born in Sicily." At these words he opened the door of the apartment in which his family then were: the people were struck dumb, and renounced their atrocious project.'

The Austrian army, now reinforced to 42 regiments of infantry, 18 of cavalry, and a proportionate number of artillery, marched on Treviso, which was appointed for their general rendezvous. At the same time, an official note from the cabinet of Vienna to that of Naples announced its motives for the assembling of so large a body of troops, and declared that the object which the Emperor had in view was the maintenance of tranquillity in the Austrian provinces, as well as in the peninsula. In the month of October, the deliberations of the three northern sovereigns began at Troppau, attended by ambassadors from France and England, as well as from the other powers. The result of their deliberations, as we all know, was to invite King Ferdinand to Laybach, in order that the means might be concerted of effecting a *general reconciliation of interests*; and the Austrian army received orders to remain in a state of inactivity, till Ferdinand should give his definitive answer.

In the mean while, the Neapolitan parliament had been convoked, and on the 1st of October his Majesty, attended by the Duke of Calabria, repaired to it, and solemnly took the oath to the constitution; the sentiments of the King seeming to harmonize with the views of the representatives. Much discussion on the finances and the army followed; and, with respect to Austria, it seemed the general feeling that they should repose confidence in the army, and act only on the defensive. At subsequent sittings, the Spanish constitution was adopted, with necessary modifications. On the 7th, the Secretary for Foreign Affairs laid before the house the letter from the Emperor of Austria to the King, inviting him to Laybach, in order to deliberate with the great powers *for their common interest and that of Europe*. He added that his Majesty had assented to the invitation, and read the royal message to the Parliament, in which the King declared that he had been influenced to join the sovereigns by his love for his people and to avert the evils of war; that he desired a deputation of five of their members to accompany him; and that he confirmed in favour of the Prince of Calabria the powers with which he had been invested. After several messages between the King and the Parliament, the former always declaring that the procedure should not cause any detriment to the Spanish constitution, which he had determined to support, his Majesty on the 13th of December embarked with his suite in an English ship of war, which immediately sailed. On the 18th the Prince Regent took the oath before the Parliament; on which occasion several speeches, marked with great moderation and breathing the spirit of enlightened policy, were delivered. The Prince was followed to his palace with the liveliest applause and acclamations.

As war or peace depended, however, on the determination of the Congress, the Neapolitans put the kingdom into a state of efficient defence. The Austrians remained behind the Po: but, though their determination was not yet known, it was soon perceived that the Congress were by no means favourable to the Neapolitan cause; various corps of the Austrians on the frontiers of Venetian Lombardy having made different movements to effectuate the passage of that river. On the 28th and 29th of January, they crossed the Po; the Austrian commander *Frimont* announcing in general orders that this movement had no object but the preservation of tranquillity. They then marched towards Naples with the utmost rapidity, and the declaration of the Congress was officially published in the Vienna Gazette. — The substance of that famous declaration; — the letter of Ferdinand from Laybach to his son; — the
reply

reply of that Prince, intimating his suspicions that his father's letter had been extorted from him; instead of flowing from his own volition;—the convocation of the Parliament;—the communication to that body by the Duke *de Pallo*, who had returned from Laybach on his mission to the King with the ultimatum of the Congress*;—the declarations of the Neapolitan representatives, and their determination never to make peace with an enemy while he occupied their territory;—the decrees of that body to support the national independence, and to put the kingdom into a posture of defence;—their refusal of the propositions of Austria, Russia, and Prussia;—their manifesto in answer to that of Vienna;—that of the Prince Regent on joining the army;—the march of the right wing of the Austrian army, and its arrival at Nadicofani on the 17th of February, while another division proceeded by Rimini and Sinigaglia;—all these incidents have been too recently notified to require repetition.

On the 27th, a letter from Ferdinand at Laybach was published at Foligno, the head-quarters of the Austrian army, announcing his Majesty's anxiety relative to the deplorable consequences of the measures adopted in the month of July; expressing his regret that those who had possessed themselves of the supreme power had been deaf to his remonstrances; and declaring that the army then in advance towards Naples were friends, not enemies, and destined to protect the internal and external peace of the kingdom. At the same time appeared General *Frimont's* proclamation, calling on the Neapolitans to return to their duties, and to confide in their King: disclaiming every hostile intention in passing the frontiers, and promising both protection to all faithful subjects and the strictest military discipline.

Rieti was occupied on the 28th of February by the Austrians, and the van of the Neapolitan troops fell back on Aquila. Naples was defended by the city-guard. The Prince Regent was with the army, which was divided into two commands; the first was confided to General *Pépé*, and was posted at the Abruzzi, — the other, to General *Carascosa*. The whole consisted of 115 battalions, exclusive of artillery, &c. &c. We pass over the different military movements of the adverse armies, to the flight of General *Pépé* from Aquila,

* In this paper, it is stated that his Britannic Majesty did not only not concur in these measures, but declared a perfect neutrality with regard to Naples. Sir William A'Court's reply, respecting the squadron in the bay of Naples, is also in unison with this policy.

where his troops shamefully deserted him as soon as the enemy came in sight. The total dispersion of the army in the Abruzzi left no obstacles to the march of General *Mohr* on Sulmona and Garigliano, which were successively evacuated by the Neapolitans.

On the 13th of March, a council of war, at which the Prince Regent presided, was held at Capua, when General *Fardella* was dispatched with a mission to the King of Naples, who was now at Florence. The body of the Austrian army arrived on the 19th at San Germano. General *Carascosa* had withdrawn his troops into Mignana, a strong position on the road to Capua: but the same pusillanimity, which had dispersed the Neapolitan army of the Abruzzi, operated still more strongly with these recreant soldiers, of whom many battalions revolted, fired on their officers, and then disbanded. The garrison of St. Germano surrendered at discretion, and General *Fiquelmont* advanced to Capua, which also submitted. In the mean time, the Duke of *Calabria* had returned to Naples, the city being in a state of stupefaction, the Parliament on the point of dissolution, and rumours and suspicious fears floating in the minds of all. — On the 20th, was concluded the convention of Capua for the cessation of hostilities on all points of the kingdom; and on the 24th, at nine in the morning, the Austrians entered Naples, and defiled before the Duke and the Prince of Salerno, who were in a balcony of the palace.

‘Here terminated,’ says the writer, ‘the revolution of Naples. Every one would naturally have supposed that the Neapolitans, after so much shew of enthusiasm, would have made a more lively and protracted resistance; and that Austria, even if she had ultimately succeeded, would have dearly purchased her triumph. Much better had it been for the people of the Two Sicilies to have made *no* effort to shake off the yoke of their antient institutions, than thus to have exhibited to the world that they had no courage but in words. They have done nothing by their revolution but to awaken old feuds, to give birth to new animosities, and to render themselves a thousand times more wretched than before.’ (P. 140.)

ART. V. *Anecdotes du dix-neuvième Siècle, &c.; i. e. Anecdotes of the 19th Century, or an unpublished Collection of recent Anecdotes and Stories, singular Adventures, &c. illustrating the History of Manners and Mind in the Age in which we live, compared with past Times.* By J. A. S. COLLIN DE PLANCY. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 15s.

THE name of M. COLLIN DE PLANCY is already well known in both the literary and the political world by his *Dictionnaire Infernal*, and *Feodal*, and his singular collection of tales

tales about spirits, intitled *Le Diable peint par lui même*. The miscellany before us is written in the same tone, and contains much spirited satire on the proceedings of the ultra-royalists, on the extravagant pretensions of the restored emigrants, on the ignorance of the noblesse and clergy, on the craft of the Jesuits, and on those superstitions which, after a counteraction of five-and-twenty years, and an almost entire extinguishment of them except among the uneducated in the provinces most remote from the capital, the present government is attempting to revive throughout France. With this justifiable satire on tyranny and imposture, are unfortunately mixed several sallies and indirect attacks on the Christian religion itself, partly written after the manner of *Voltaire*, and partly extracted from his writings. We cannot too severely reprehend the introduction of such matter, as well as of some anecdotes and stories remarkable for their indelicacy and absurdity, into a work written in a popular form, and the title of which might serve as a ready passport into families. That the author is not, however, a licentious moralist in general, is evident from the contempt which he every where expresses for insincerity and interested accommodation to circumstances; from his reverence for the admirable sentiments expressed in *Pithou's* will; (vol. ii. p. 263.) and from his spirited comments on lotteries, on gambling-houses, and on duels. Indéed, the improprieties, on which we have felt it our duty to animadvert, strongly illustrate that re-action which the superstitious observances, the unmeaning restraints, the formal sanctity, the pernicious confessionals, and the miracle-mongery of modern zealots must inevitably produce in minds able to discern, amid the enthusiasm of some and the hypocrisy of others, the same selfishness, love of power, and spiritual pride working in all: for it has been found in every country that, in proportion as the prevailing religious notions are gross and extravagant, and the prevailing manners rigidly austere, the reflecting part of the community is prone to scepticism and to some degree of laxity of manners. In this sense extremes meet, and superstition is the greatest friend of infidelity.

Some subjects are discussed by this author in sober seriousness; and the essays on liberty, (vol. i. p. 85.) on the history of liberty in France, (vol. ii. p. 50.) and on emigration, (vol. i. p. 197.) are written with great judgment and good sense. Some hints which are scattered through the volumes on trial by jury, on the present state of the prisons in France, on the criminal code, and on the principles of penal law, evince that the author has studied *M. Cottu's* work with

much attention, and that he duly appreciates that gentleman's researches and humane exertions.

We shall give a few extracts as specimens of the amusing stories which the writer has collected; and, if our readers are pleased with the sample, they need not doubt of obtaining abundance of such diversion by applying to the work itself.

'A missionary in the year 1818, arriving at a little town in Brittany, began his address with these words: "Saint Francis Xavier, the patron of missionaries and of all who give ear to them, sends me to this town" — unfortunately, here the memory of the preacher failed him, and he repeated three or four times "Saint Francis Xavier sends me to this town." — "Well, and what to do, pray?" cried out a little boy, who was quite impatient to hear the news. "To excommunicate you, you cursed little atheist," replied the formidable missionary: "I would lay a wager that this young wretch is the son of a *liberal*, and that he belongs to one of those Lancasterian schools *que le prophète compare aux orgies du Sabbat*." Thus his discourse, which should have expatiated on the benefits of missions, was metamorphosed by an unfortunate slip of his memory into a long rhapsody against education.

'The monk of St. Gal relates that Louis the Debonnaire, and after his example the nobles of his court, made rich presents to those Normans who were desirous of being baptized; and that, one Easter, these pirates came in such great numbers that a sufficiency of new clothes could not be found to present to them, according to custom: however, they did their best: but a Norman lord, observing the dress which they were bringing to him, fairly tossed it away, telling them with a good round oath that this was at least the twentieth time that he had come there to be baptized, and that they had never before offered him so vile a dress. Such, unfortunately, says *Saint Foix*, are the great majority of the conversions of which missionaries make so much boast. Such, also, is too frequently the extraordinary piety of those regiments of grenadiers, who take the sacrament every month with apparent disinterested devotion.'

The preceding paragraph will shew that the author does not always restrict himself to the meaning of the title which he has allotted to his work, as containing anecdotes of the present century, and he acknowledges that he has occasionally committed this chronological deviation: but he usually contrives to give a *temporary application* to his anecdotes. We shall now find one that is very recent.

'In a village of Calvados, in the month of October, 1820, was buried an old man, who had retired from business, and owned some national property. Before his death, he was desirous of receiving the sacrament, and the priest gave him absolution, on condition that he would restore some acres to the church; which he promised to do, but death came before the notary. His property, therefore,

therefore, wholly descended to his son, a simple youth. Some days after his father's funeral, the young man was awakened by a violent noise, accompanied with a vivid light, which in a moment disappeared. Being no stranger to fear, he shook as he lay in his bed, and tried to cry out for help: but a cold and moist hand closed his lips, and completed his amazement. He fancied that he beheld a spectre covered with a long white mantle pass before him, and a sepulchral voice uttered these words, "*Badly obtained. The soul of P—— must go into torments if his son makes not restitution.*" Another voice, weak and failing, continued, "*My son, restore the ill-gotten property, or else——*" the sepulchral voice added, "*I shall come night after night to drag you by your feet.*" These words were followed by total silence; the youth slept no more; and on the next morning he went to relate to the priest and his family the vision of the night. The priest and some of the neighbours advised him to give up his property: but a young kinsman, just arrived from school, maintained that the dead do not come back again, and that the possessors of national property are no more likely to have their feet dragged by ghosts than their neighbours. Then taking the young heir aside, he offered to lie in the bed in his place if he would keep it a secret, and would promise to wait one day more before he gave up the property. This proposal was accepted, and the young kinsman took possession of the other youth's bed for that night. Between twelve and one o'clock, he heard some person gently open a window, and at the same time he beheld a phantom enter, who came up as if to speak to him, with a threatening gesture. *So far, so good*, said he, mentally, *as he mistakes me for another person, spirits are not omniscient.* He then slipped out of bed as quietly as he could, seized the phantom with both his hands, and threw him in a moment into a little dark closet, which he shut, and locked very carefully. The spectre, finding himself a prisoner, began to cry out for mercy: but the hard-hearted youth went to call in his neighbours, who soon recognized, in the semblance of a ghost, a young abbé, who, although as yet only in deacon's orders, had been desirous to give a proof of his zeal.

Enough, however, of sacerdotal artifice, and anti-sacerdotal sarcasm. Let us try something different.

'It is not customary in the provinces, as in Paris, to make bills payable at the end or in the middle of a month, but the drawer fixes on some saint's day, St. John's, or St. Rhemi's, or at Martinmas. A cunning countryman, who owed 200 francs to his neighbour, promised to pay him on *St. Pistoie's* day: but it happens that no saint of this name is to be found in the calendar. After some months, the creditor thought it might be worth knowing whether the bill would not soon become due, but could get no one to furnish him with an account of *St. Pistoie*. They said that he was quite a stranger to them, and they gave him their opinion that his bill was good for nothing. He then hastened to his debtor, and begged him to fix on some other day for the payment: but the country-

man would do no such thing; and, as he knew very well what he was about, there was no bringing him to reason: the creditor therefore took him before a justice of the peace. When the countryman appeared, "*I shall be ready to pay,*" said he, "*on St. Pistoie's day.*" — "Pray on what day is his feast kept?" inquired the judge. — "That is what I cannot tell," said the countryman: "I am summoned here to be told that." The magistrate of the village, who had his wits about him, rubbed his forehead a while, and then asked, "Is there not some day when they keep a feast in honour of all who are in heaven?" — "O yes, on All-Saints' day." — "Just so; then that is the day on which the feast of Saint Pistoie is kept as well as of all the rest; and on that day the bill will become due." This wise decision quite confounded the countryman, and he found the proverb true of *diamond cut diamond.* —

'When the allies entered Paris in 1814, an English officer, observing in the countenance of some ladies, who were standing in groupes on the boulevard in Ghent, every expression of joy and delight, went up to them, and began to address them very merrily. They were charmed with the courtesy of the young Englishman, but could make no reply because he persisted in speaking to them in English. "Sir," said an old Count, "would you be so obliging as to address these ladies in French." — "You must be jesting, Sir," replied the English officer, "these ladies cannot be French ladies." — He withdrew as soon as he had uttered this remark; which, though it was rather stinging, was unfortunately too just.'

We have occasionally met with anecdotes of *Napoleon Bonaparte* which possessed something of the humorous, but not very often; and we shall therefore avail ourselves of a few which occur in this collection.

'*Mercier* said that, in order to describe the Conservative Senate, a new word was wanting, and he conceived that he found it in styling that body the most *genuflexible* in the world. *Bonaparte* himself was diverted by the phrase, and one day observed to the Prince of *Wagram*, "I am going to introduce a dancing master into the budget of the senate, as they are so fond of capering about."

'It is known that *Bonaparte* loved finery and shew. A senator, who enjoyed an income of more than 60,000 francs, lived nevertheless in a very penurious manner, and one day ventured to the Tuileries in a hackney-coach. *Bonaparte* saw him get out of it, and, when he came in, asked whether he had not a carriage? "No, Sire," replied the senator, "I have not hitherto been able to allow myself that indulgence: but your bounty to me has been so great, that I hope soon to possess a decent equipage." — "Do not trouble yourself," answered the Emperor, "you shall have one to-morrow, of my own choice." — The senator retired, full of joy that he was about to have a carriage without any expence; — and on the following morning, sure enough, a magnificent coach and four fine horses were brought to him. His joy, however, was short-lived, for he was required to pay at the Emperor's order

der the 28,000 francs which this equipage had cost : whereas, if he had managed the matter himself, one-fourth of that sum would have been the amount of his disbursement.

“ The wife of this senator appeared at the Tuileries two successive times in the same dress. *Napoleon* remarked it, and turning to her he said, “ Madam, this robe becomes you very much, but it seems that you are too fond of it, for I see you in no other.”

“ *Bonaparte* observed of a very tall senator, “ I do not know how this devil of a fellow manages it ; he is a foot taller than I am, and yet I cannot hear a word that he says unless I stoop excessively.”

On introducing some *Asiniana*, for which the compiler vouches on the best authority, he observes that ‘ the platitudes of ignorance are still the inheritance of an immense majority of unfortunate mortals ;’ and he then brings forwards various instances of that want of general knowledge among his countrymen and country-women, which we have certainly heard very often alleged against them. We quote two or three :

“ In 1810, an upstart (*un parvenu*) in the theatre asked a person near him what piece was performing, and was told, *Mithridates*. — “ Is it a new thing ? ” — “ No, Sir, it is a tragedy by *Racine*. ” — “ By *Racine* ; ah ! that’s another matter ; and this *Racine*, Sir, is he a young man ? ”

“ The conversation one day in a party turned on the long passage to the island of St. Helena, when an *élégante* observed, “ Why, after all, it cannot be so far off ; St. Helena is in England, is it not ? ”

“ A young girl asked her mother who that Joan of Arc was, about whom she had heard so much ? — “ Child,” replied *mamma*, “ Joan of Arc was a Queen of France who had learned to fight.”

“ Just before the first representation of *Mercier’s* play of *Charlemagne*, a lady was conjecturing what dress they would give to that monarch ; when she was interrupted by another lady, who declared that “ the matter was very easy, for his attire would be Grecian, according to the custom of his time.”

M. COLLIN DE PLANCY has seen much of the manners and characters of public men, for he has lived in Paris during an eventful period, and he implicitly adopts that plain description of a courtier, “ *Politicus est animal rationale, bipes, ita serviens Deo ut non offendat Diabolum.* ”

Perhaps, the best told stories in the work are those of the ‘ Deputy at School’ and the ‘ Devoted Tutor :’ but we have not room for any farther extracts, and therefore (with the exceptions before made,) content ourselves with recommending the original to the perusal of our readers. They will
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meet with much in the volumes on the subject of possession by evil spirits, on sorcery, on prayers still used, and suited for all occasions, to give them instruction on the present condition of the French, as well as to afford agreeable diversion for a leisure hour. We find also a history of St. Ignatius, in verse, which is admirable in its kind.

ART. VI. *Voyages dans la Grande Bretagne, &c. ; i. e. Travels in Great Britain, undertaken with a View to the Military and Naval Departments of the Public Service, to Bridges and to Roads, in 1816—1820.* By CHARLES DUPIN, Member of the Institute of France, &c. Vols. III. and IV. 8vo., and Folio Atlas. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 1l. 16s.

THE first part of this work, which treated 'On the Military Force of Great Britain,' has been already noticed by us in the Appendix to our xciiid volume; and the second, now before us, is wholly devoted to an examination of our naval power: comprehending a general and detailed view of its constitutional relation with the government and the people, official transactions, the internal discipline of our ships of war and naval-establishments, and the great public works constructed in our several dock-yards and naval-arsenals.

It is difficult to conceive a more unthankful task for a Frenchman, than that which the author has here imposed on himself; since it requires him to bring afresh before the minds of his countrymen the numerous disasters, and signal defeats, which they have experienced from the superior talent, skill, and bravery of the British navy: in short, to compose a work of which every page, almost, must necessarily contain some fact calculated to humble the pride of a people who are intensely fond of national glory. In examining our *military* force, and its exploits, the picture of our success might be relieved by directing the "mind's eye" to many celebrated victories obtained by the French army, if not over the English, at least over all the other great military powers of Europe: but, unfortunately for the popularity of the *present* portion of his book, the author has it not in his power to enliven the sombre picture by a single victory of importance. He does, indeed, mention one or two instances in which a French ship is said to have combated successfully an English vessel of equal or superior force: but these cases are so rare that they serve rather to make the contrast of light and shade the more perspicuous, and to give a still brighter tint to the more prominent parts of the delineation.

M. DUPIN

M. DUPIN is fully aware of these difficulties, and of the delicate task which he has to execute; and he accordingly makes it the first object, in his introduction, to reconcile his countrymen to the unpleasant truths which they must expect to encounter, by combating certain prevalent opinions, entertained by the different political parties in the French capital relative to the value of a fleet to France, and the policy of attempting its regeneration. On the former subject he observes that, in order to support precept by example and arguments by facts, it will be frequently necessary to refer to the success of the British navy, and the reverses which that of France has sustained :

‘ Ah ! that it is not possible,’ he exclaims, ‘ to throw a veil for ever over our past misfortunes, and to conjure our defeats never to return ! Then would it be a duty that we owe to our patriotism, to bury in silence the vestiges of our fall and the monuments of our disasters : but it is not thus that dissimulation can annihilate the recollection of times which are no more, and command that of times to come.

‘ If we do not exercise our prudence and strength of mind to discover the source of our past misfortunes, the natural course of things, which has precipitated us towards our fall, will on the return of war precipitate us on it again. Let us, then, guard ourselves against being checked by the false shame of unveiling the lessons of afflicting but salutary experience. Far from yielding with the weakness of children to the fear of seeing our wound in all its depth, let us contemplate it with a calm and attentive eye, probe it to the bottom, and, extracting from it the dart which may still be concealed, regain that vigour which will enable us to hurl it another day against our rivals.

‘ With the view of arriving at this end, it has been necessary to draw a parallel between the national force of France and that of England ; and it was my duty to treat them with the same impartiality and the same independence.’ —

‘ Let us endeavour, moreover, to do justice to the measures conceived and realized by the English rulers, in order to raise their navy to its present degree of strength and splendor ; and to the regulations which they have established that manifest so much prudence, grandeur, and wisdom. If we wish to conceive a high opinion of this government, we must consider it in relation to its own agents. Then we shall see it religiously observant of rights acquired, faithful in its promises, magnificent in exciting services to come, generous in acknowledging those which are past, careful of the well-being and health and lives of its defenders, compassionate towards its invalids, charitable to their widows, and paternal to their orphans. These are virtues which the British government offers as examples to all other nations ; and these are the virtues which, poured forth in profusion, have produced those noble sentiments of gratitude, devotedness, and enthusiasm, which have

have led to the accomplishment of such great actions, and crowned with such glorious triumphs the naval force of the British empire.

‘If the English ministry be in any way blameable, it is so sometimes in relation to the citizens, and often in its transactions with foreign people. In this respect, also, we have dissembled nothing; above all, in speaking of the maritime pretensions of England, and its treatment of prisoners of war, it was our duty to be open; for in shewing things only on one side, whether flattering or unfavorable, truth itself becomes a lie.’

Having thus introduced himself to his readers, and explained the views and motives by which he professes to be actuated, the author proceeds to the developement of his plan; commencing with an inquiry relative to the British maritime pretensions, the right of blockade, and the seizing of merchant-vessels previously to a declaration of war; drawing also, with the assistance of Entick's *Naval History*, a concise but well-arranged sketch of the rise and progress of the British marine, from the ninth century to the present time. It is, however, only from the time of Henry VIII. that England could boast of possessing a royal navy. Till that period, the ships of war and of commerce were the same, being merely hired for the former purpose when requisite, as we now occasionally engage such vessels as transports: but Henry established the dock-yards of Woolwich, Deptford, and Portsmouth; constructed the forts at Tilbury and Gravesend; and constituted the Admiralty and Navy Boards. The fruits of these wise measures were gathered by his daughter Elizabeth, who, without such a fleet as she then possessed, could not have so successfully contended with Philip II. of Spain: but the result of this battle seems to have rendered our navy, already very popular, the favourite service of the people; and ‘from that time to the present it has been increasing in its strength, improving in its discipline and appointments, and becoming more and more formidable to the foreign enemies of the kingdom.’

M. DUPIN next proceeds to examine our maritime pretensions, and of course endeavours to shew that these are arrogant in their principles, oppressive towards other nations, and founded only on the right which power has conferred. We feel no disposition to enter with the author into this field of argument, which has so often called forth our remarks and opinions. — Speaking of the right which the British government has assumed, of seizing such merchant-vessels as may be in its ports previously to a declaration of war, (which happened in 1803, and led to the measure to which *Bonaparte* had recourse of making prisoners all the

British residents and travellers in France,) M. DUPIN observes :

‘ The English, accused by the First Consul of making war like pirates, accused him in their turn of making it like a barbarian. Without either approving or blaming those measures, let us consider the offence and the reprisal, and examine whether, if it be allowable to capture merchant-vessels and to make prisoners of their crews, why it should be less admissible to declare prisoners every other class of citizens, and to capture their goods. Why should voyagers by sea be put out of the protection of the law of nations, without travellers by land being placed under like circumstances ?

‘ In vain the English reply that, after having seized the ships, they detained only the vessel, its cargo, and its sailors, and liberated the passengers. What would they have said of *Bonaparte*, if, many days before war was declared, he had taken from English travellers their horses and drivers, their equipages, and their luggage, to send back naked the unfortunate owners ? Yet such was the conduct of the English to the French voyagers, found on board their vessels, which they were navigating in supposed security, in peace, and on the faith of treaties.’

We must acknowledge that, were we Frenchmen, these arguments would appear to us to be just and unanswerable.

The author then examines the relation subsisting between the parliament and the naval power, the penal code, &c. This subject is discussed with his usual ingenuity and acuteness ; and, always leaning to the supremacy of the civil authority, he states with obvious satisfaction every circumstance which demonstrates its controul over what is called the military power : justly conceiving such paramount authority of the civil law to be essential to the existence of a free people. It is pleasing to observe him so strenuous in maintaining the judicious limitations and restraint which our legislation has provided in all cases, the degree of authority which is duly proportioned to the responsibility of various officers, and the caution observed of not infringing on the private liberty of the subject ; of all which he speaks in the highest terms of commendation.

The next topic leads to an examination of the superintendence of parliament over the pecuniary and administrative concerns of the navy ; the functions of the committee of naval inquiry ; the mode of procedure in cases of delinquency, &c. ; — and, by way of illustration, a sort of journal is given of the charges against Lord Melville, and his subsequent trial.

‘ Here,’ says the author, ‘ we see this nobleman arraigned for a fault which is trifling in comparison with those that are committed by the minister of a despotic government, deprived of his
high

high office, treated as a criminal, and brought before the supreme tribunal of the nation, for allowing his clerk to make use of the interest of certain sums of money in his hands; while *Mazerin*, under Louis XIV., after a long period spent in fraud and speculation, died in peace, leaving behind him a fortune of twenty millions of francs.'

The annual budget of the navy is the next object of investigation; and it is curious to observe the confidence and consequence which the author now begins to assume, the terms in which he approves and disapproves of certain returns and statements, and with what *sang froid* he speaks of the simplicity of the British parliament in voting particular sums, of which the immediate appropriation is concealed for particular reasons. After all, however, he says, 'It is undoubtedly of little consequence to us what is done by the English House of Commons in this respect: but it is of the utmost importance to us that the French ministry should never adopt this dangerous love of mystery and dissimulation, nor employ fallacious arguments to hide from our legislature the knowledge of the principal details of the service.'

When he has despatched that part of his subject which concerns the general relation of the navy with the government and people, the author proceeds to an examination of the several officers, their functions, pay, and general expences; and here again we find him deciding with the same confidence, as in the case already mentioned, where the sums granted are too much or too little, what officers are too well or too ill paid, &c. He compares the price of provisions in 1813, 1817, and 1820, and contrasts with them the salaries of the several officers at those periods; and hence he concludes that either the pay was too little in 1813, or it was too much in 1817 and 1820. Some of our gentlemen in official situations will, perhaps, think that M. DUPIN is travelling a little out of his proper sphere in these remarks. If they are not much disposed to admit Mr. Hume's judgment in such cases, what will they say to a Frenchman for taking on himself the office of regulating their yearly salaries? Be this as it may, however, neither the one nor the other may be the less right in their ideas.

In the discipline of the English navy, and the superintending power of our admirals of squadrons, the author sees much to applaud; while, *per contra*, he finds much to condemn in the French service. 'Among us,' he says, 'the captain of the smallest vessel of war fancies himself the king or rather the despot of his ship, and conceives that no superior officer has a right to come on board to inquire, or to observe,

observe, in what manner he executes the details of service: it is well if, in the evolutions of the squadron, he chuses not to disobey the signal which is made for the conduct of his vessel. This fatal spirit of insubordination, more considerable before the Revolution than since that epoch, requires to be rooted out of the French navy, in order for it ever to obtain any great and decisive success.' — Another defect in the French service is the want of a *grade* of Captains from vessels of different rates; so that the Captain of a frigate, who is put Captain *en second* into a first-rate, is not so well treated as the commander of a brig or even of a galliot. The Captain of a three-decker, having on board a flag-officer, does not obtain so much respect as the lieutenant who commands a corvette. He is consequently chosen from among the most inferior, or least protected, officers of his rank; and thus it is, says the author, 'that our admirals are ill seconded, while the English Admirals are generally supported by the most able officers of the fleet.'

M. DUPIN next illustrates the manner in which the accounts of every vessel of war are kept, the responsibility thrown on the several officers, and their corresponding degree of authority and right of inspection. 'This is a part of the management of the British navy which may be offered as a model to the French marine.' Great praise is also given to the care with which the food of the English sailor is calculated for the preservation of his health; and with which the water for his use is kept in iron tanks, where it preserves its original purity and retains all its freshness. We are also informed that, on the writer's recommendation, in 1816, his government adopted these iron tanks for their vessels of war. In another place, speaking of the means which our Navy-Board employs to insure the best provisions of every kind, he says;

'A system directly the reverse has produced precisely the opposite effects in France: a fact which may be made evident by tracing the maxims, the frauds, and the bad faith of the system followed in the management of the affairs of the marine. The English sailor is habitually the most healthy and the strongest of the seamen of all nations, which is surely not a privilege of nature. He owes these rare advantages to diet, to cleanliness, and to all the care taken in the British fleet to render his existence as comfortable as the service will permit.'

Book III. is wholly appropriated to an explanation and illustrations of the functions, duties, &c. of the several branches of the Navy-Board: but we must not follow the author through this very minute detail.

Respecting

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Respecting the *Treatment of Prisoners of War*, we have already stated an opinion in our analysis of M. DUPIN's "*Mémoires sur la Marine*," &c. M. R. vol. lxxxvi., and we are sorry to have our attention again called to the same topic, urged in more vehement terms than before. In the former case, we certainly doubted the author's statement, and the accuracy of the information on which he had founded it, though still we were desirous of attributing his remarks to the laudable impulse of humanity: but we must say that we conceive it to be impossible to read what he has now advanced, without attributing many of his observations to a feeling of a very different nature. It would seem that he deemed it necessary to offer up some sacrifice to the blighted honours of the French navy; and that he saw no object so meet for the purpose as the one which he has chosen, and which might at least be effected under the cloak of humanity. Had he confined himself, as he professes to do in the beginning of his chapter, to report only what he saw, and what he could obtain from English authorities, we should have given him full credit for his statements and intentions: but this is not the case. He quotes the most ridiculous stories from French writers, whose shameful falsehoods betray the malignity of their authors; and then, to get rid of the responsibility of uttering them as truths, he has recourse to the subterfuge of exclaiming, 'But these are not evidences, and we have promised to admit only as evidence that which is derived from English authorities.' In this way he introduces the disgusting fabrications of General *Pillet*, who did not hesitate to affirm "that a gentleman, having occasion to visit a prison for the French, (we believe in Scotland,) on horseback, left the animal at the gate for a short time, and found on his return only the skeleton; the flesh having been cut off from the poor beast alive, and devoured by the famished prisoners." If this be 'not evidence,' but if it be, as the author well knows it to be, a disgusting falsehood, why has he contaminated his pages with the recital of it, but to feed the animosity so long subsisting between the two nations, and which he professes throughout his work to desire to see obliterated?

To another statement on this head we also seriously object; viz. that the author, in reporting the number of deaths of the French prisoners, hesitates not to attribute them to the treatment which the men received in England, as if none of them were due to the usual course of nature. Had he examined this subject as he has investigated the loss *per annum* of the British army and navy, we are inclined to think that he must have come to a very different conclusion. It appears from his own
statement

statement that we returned to France, after 1814, more than 70,000 prisoners of that nation; that we had also 30,000 prisoners of different nations, attached in the course of the war to the French empire; that we returned to France without exchange, between 1803 and 1814, 12,787 invalids; and that the number of deaths in England, in the course of the war, was 12,845: making the total number brought to this country, in the course of twelve years, 125,000. If we allow that nine-tenths of the 12,787 returned invalids died in the French hospitals, as M. DUPIN affirms, we shall have in all about 25,000 deaths, or one-fifth of the whole, in the course of twelve years: which will make the annual loss not so much as 3 per cent., admitting the mean term of imprisonment for each man to be seven years; and this includes the deaths of all the wounded in action who lived to reach England. Let M. DUPIN examine our bills of mortality, and then say with what justice he can attribute these deaths to *our treatment of the men as prisoners*. Are Frenchmen immortal every where but on board the prison-ships of England? It is true that the prisoners of war were subject to many hardships and privations, and were obliged to endure a long and close confinement; and we regret the necessity of it as much as M. DUPIN: but we indignantly spurn any insinuation that these measures were adopted 'for the purpose of destroying the living force of the French navy.' Let it be remembered, too, that the length and the hardships of this captivity would have been much diminished, if *Bonaparte* had permitted an exchange of prisoners. — Had M. DUPIN confined himself strictly to facts, what would have been the full amount of all his complaints? 1st, That men, of whom very many belonged to the sea-service, were kept prisoners on ship-board, in numbers varying from 600 to 900 for a seventy-four gun-ship; the usual complement of crew for such a vessel being about 650: but, to accommodate this extra number, all the guns and stores were removed, and one additional deck for sleeping was provided in each ship by covering in between the gang-ways. 2dly, That the allowance for each man was $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of bread per day, $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of meat, $\frac{1}{4}$ pint of pease, and $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of salt; which, if we are not misinformed, is a more substantial regimen than they would have had on board their own vessels. As some punishment must necessarily be provided for refractory individuals, they were placed in closer confinement, and probably forfeited a part of their daily allowance: but that this punishment was invented from the paltry consideration of the saving that might arise from it is an idea unworthy of the author, and inconsistent with the spirit of the British government.

Having exhausted all his anger on this subject, M. DUPIN proceeds in tolerably good humour through the remaining part of the volume, and we will endeavour to do the same: but we must necessarily pass over several chapters relative to the organization of our ports, dock-yards, arsenals, victualling offices, &c., which will bring us to the last section, intitled, 'Of the War and Peace Establishments.' This is subdivided under the following heads; viz, on the War-establishment; raising the naval force; impressment, and prizes. Peace-establishment; half-pay, retirements, pensions: chest at Chatham, and Greenwich Hospital.

In the first chapter, the author gives a complete development of our naval force during the late war, and at various periods which preceded it; and we must acknowledge that he has not, in any case, attempted to undervalue either its present power or the efforts by which that power has been obtained. He remarks:

'Within the last 125 years, the British navy has sustained six great maritime wars; and in each, successively, it has employed a force more formidable and better organized than in any of the preceding. It is since this period that England has realized its pretensions to the sovereignty of the sea, by occupying all the important points which serve as the keys to that domain. Gibraltar, Malta, and the Ionian Isles, insure its dominion in the Mediterranean. With Heligoland, its power reaches towards the Baltic. By means of St. Helena, the Cape of Good Hope, and the Isle of France, it commands the passage to India. Lastly, India itself, the finest of the West Indian islands, Canada, Newfoundland, and New Holland, have increased these important possessions. These are the conquests which England has made since its revolution, and which it owes to the progress of its naval force. Rome only, at the time of its most brilliant success, can afford us an example of such a system of aggrandizement.' —

'Towards the end of the seventeenth century, the maritime wars of England consisted of a few battles with one or two fleets; its ships made some cruizes, formed isolated blockades, and undertook certain enterprizes, sufficient for the purposes of a campaign. But, in the naval war which we have seen begun and finished in the nineteenth century, England conceived the idea of attacking nearly at the same time the navies of France, Spain, Holland, Denmark, Italy, and even America; it has, in short, opposed itself to every maritime power of the world. Not only has it blockaded all the war-ports which could send out any squadron or flotilla, but it has also blockaded all the commercial ports; a spectacle of which, up to that time, no maritime power had offered an example. The inhabitants of an island, of but small extent, have succeeded in forming with their own ships a continuous line of observation along all the coasts of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. — All the

the continents of the two worlds have been simultaneously besieged, islands taken by main force, the commerce of the universe invaded, and, finally, after twenty years of combat, this naval power, which began the contest with 30 millions of subjects, has terminated it by consolidating an empire, including the conquerors and the conquered, of 80 millions. Let us, moreover, recall to mind that Great Britain has never, during this epoch, employed more than 145,000 sailors and marines in effecting these prodigies.'

Such is the picture which M. DUPIN has drawn of the resources and exertions of this country; and with this impression powerfully fixed on his mind, our readers may judge of the conclusion at which he arrives when he has discussed the probable result of the invasion of England, or rather of the attempt at invasion, as threatened by *Bonaparte* in 1805. Could the landing have been effected, he observes, the French army would unquestionably have performed wonders. 'It would have been not less magnanimous than the army of the East after the battle of the Nile: but it would not have had to contend either with Turks or Arabs. It would have been opposed by a people prodigiously obstinate; by a people who had in arms more than a million of men, excited by the enthusiasm of patriotism, and stimulated by the most implacable hatred against the French.' — While on this subject, the author relates an anecdote of *Bonaparte*; which, as it seems to rest on good authority, will not be uninteresting:

'In 1805, M. *Daru* was at Boulogne as intendant-general of the army. One morning, the Emperor sent for him into his cabinet: where he found him transported with rage, pacing his room with long and hurried steps, and only breaking a mournful silence by abrupt and short sentences:—"What a fleet! what an admiral! what lost sacrifices! my hopes are deceived! this *Villeneuve*, instead of being in the Channel, has entered Ferrol! all is over! it will be blockaded!—*Daru*, set yourself down there, listen, and write." The Emperor had received early in the morning the news of *Villeneuve* having entered a Spanish port, and he saw at once that the invasion of England must be abandoned, and that the enormous expence of the fleet and flotilla was lost for the present, if not for ever. Then, in the midst of a fury which would not have allowed a common man to have preserved his judgment, he adopted one of his boldest resolutions, and traced the plan of one of the most admirable campaigns which any conqueror, after the most mature deliberation, ever conceived. Without stopping or hesitating, he dictated the entire campaign of Austerlitz; the departure of all the *corps d'armée* from Hanover and Holland to the confines of the west and south of France; the order of their marches; their duration; the places of convergency and union of the columns, and the attacks by surprize as well as by main force: the different movements of the enemy were also foreseen and

opposed, and victory was assured on every hypothesis. — Such were the correctness and foresight displayed in this plan, that on a line of departure of more than two hundred leagues, and lines of operation extending for three hundred leagues, the order of march was followed day by day, and from place to place to Munich. It was only from this capital that the periods of movement received some alterations and modifications: but the places remained the same; and the plan was crowned with complete success. — Such, then, were the military talents of this man; who was equally formidable to his enemies by the extent of his genius, and to his fellow-citizens by the grasp of his despotism.'

This anecdote M. DUPIN received from General *Daru* himself.

The means employed in manning our ships of war form the next subject of this traveller's investigation; and the impressment of seamen is exposed in all its detail, and of course reprobated as fraught with despotism, oppression, and every species of evil. — The author then turns to the prizes made before and during the war, by the navy and by privateers; the proportional division in the fleets and vessels, the *droits of the admiralty*, &c. &c.

In his chapter 'On the Peace-Establishment,' and in the subsequent articles, M. DUPIN illustrates the nature of our pensions, retirements, and remunerations; on which points, as we have already seen, he holds up the British government as deserving the imitation of all nations. 'If,' says he, 'this government has erred, it has been in too liberally recompensing the officers who have raised its navy to its present pitch of glory; and in augmenting without measure the number of titles of each grade, by promotions made since the return of peace. We cannot, however, without regret, accuse the ministry of prodigality in this respect. But the praises which are due to it on account of what it has done for the common sailors and marines, their widows, and their orphans, can never be obscured by any critical remarks. This is the glory of the British administration.'

The Second Volume consists of six distinct books, each subdivided into chapters, treating on a variety of subjects highly interesting to foreign naval officers, but not perhaps so attractive to the general reader.

In the first book, the author inquires into the cause of the popularity of the navy in preference to the army of England as a national force: the honours, rewards, discipline, and punishments; the arts and sciences in their relation to naval affairs; schools of instruction; the Naval College, Naval Asylum, and the class for naval architecture. The second
book

book is employed in illustrating the manual exercises of the sailors, naval tactics, and mode of attack. The third is wholly occupied in describing our several species of naval ordnance, including carriages, different sorts of powder, balls, shells, powder-barrels, powder-magazines, &c., and considerable tables of the ranges of the different species of ordnance with various charges and degrees of windage. Book IV. relates to our several modes of construction, and means of preservation while the ships are in ordinary; the classification of the different ships according to their number of guns, &c. We expected to have seen in this chapter some developement of the principles of naval architecture: but it appears that the author has in view a complete work on this subject, which he has therefore here treated only in the most general and popular manner. The fifth and sixth books contain a general and particular description of our principal dock-yards and naval-arsenals.

Of the multiplicity of subjects here specified, we can select only a very few to bring particularly before our readers; and in these few we shall generally allow the author to speak for himself, as far as our concise abstract will permit.

M. DUPIN accounts for the popularity of the navy as a national force,—first, because it is calculated for the most important defence, but can never be employed to destroy the liberty of the people:—secondly, because all the great towns of the empire are seated at the mouth of some port, where the citizens are in the constant habit of seeing vessels of all nations bringing to its warehouses the tribute of their respective soils, and others exporting the products of national industry; and it is impossible to be in the constant practice of remarking such spectacles, without feeling an honest pride in the navy which has insured to the country all these benefits:

‘In the eyes of the English, their navy forms the elements of British power, and the moveable ramparts of the territory of Albion. It is not only in the figurative language of poetry but in the most familiar conversation of the English, when speaking of their ships, that they call them their *bulwarks*, their *wooden walls*.

‘The metropolis of the British empire contains in its bosom the most frequented part of the universe. It is the commerce of the sea which has rendered London the most populous and the most opulent capital in Europe. Ships of a hundred different countries display on the Thames their respective flags; yet the British vessels alone out-number those of all other nations. The citizen of London is justly proud to observe the fleets of merchant-men which every day arrive from the ocean, or which descend the stream of the Thames; the latter for the purpose of exporting the products of national industry, and the former importing the

treasures of foreign nations. Who can contemplate this immense movement, without being convinced that it is the commerce of the sea which has produced the riches and grandeur of the city?

The author then observes that this spectacle, and the ideas to which it gives birth, are not peculiar to London, but appertain to all the capitals of the empire. Edinburgh stands on the borders of one of the finest gulfs of Scotland; Dublin is most conveniently situated for a rapid communication with London and Ireland reciprocally; Quebec is on the shores of the river St. Lawrence, which may be called the Thames of Canada; Halifax, on the hyperborean side of America; and Cape Town at the southern extremity of Africa, that point of tempests which vessels must double to pass from Europe to India. In a word, in all parts of the globe the central points of British power participate in the benefits of the commerce of the sea, and by these benefits contribute to the splendor, the riches, and the power of the people and the government.

In the chapter on the honours and rewards bestowed on the navy and distinguished naval officers, the author introduces a description of Lord Nelson's funeral; and it is given in language which shews that he can well appreciate the merits of a hero, although the greatest and most fatal enemy of his country. In terms more concise, but not less honourable, he speaks of Newton in his chapter on the connection of navigation with the general progress of the arts and sciences. 'Had the world owed nothing more to the English than the birth of Newton, — had this been its only gift, — it would have been the greatest that nautical science ever received from any modern people. By referring to the laws of attraction the motion of all the planetary bodies of the system to which we belong; by discovering the principle of calculation, as simple in its method as it is fertile and powerful in its application; by furnishing the means of knowing at every instant the relative positions of the fixed and the moveable heavenly bodies: Newton created the application of the mathematical sciences to navigation. His fine researches in optics, and the models of reflecting instruments, proceeding from the invention of a telescope proper for astronomical observations, have not been of less service to naval science.'

We have next a description of the several acts which have been passed by the British parliament for constituting a Board of Longitude, and establishing pecuniary rewards for the encouragement of naval science: the several premiums which have been granted: and the provision made by the last act for the recompence of future discoveries. These acts, conceived

ceived and passed in the true spirit of liberality, are highly honourable to the nation; and we sincerely hope that no narrow feelings, or partialities, will be allowed by the members of the Board to cramp the efforts of genius, and thus to render abortive the generous views of the British parliament.

The chapter on Schools of Instruction contains a description of the establishment at Portsmouth for the education of a certain class of young men in the true principles, both practical and theoretical, of naval architecture, which is mentioned in terms of the highest commendation. Undoubtedly, before the formation of this academy, our dock-yards were deplorably wanting in scientific knowledge of the principles of construction: we had many able and ingenious workmen, but very few who could be called men of science; and every innovation which has been introduced, and attended with the desired success, has proceeded from these few. Now, although this institution has not existed 12 years, we have young men who have already distinguished themselves by their writings and drawings, and from whose talents the country may expect hereafter to derive the most important advantages. — In connection with this subject, it will not be improper to notice the author's opinion of our ships of war compared with those of France; and the determined spirit of improvement which we are pursuing, as contrasted with the contented apathy now prevailing among our rivals. He says that English ships have over those of France the advantages of a more solid and durable construction, and of a form nearly perfect; that, as *military fortresses*, they (having no greater number of weak points than the French) can in the same space pour on an enemy a larger quantity of fire, and at the same time manœuvre this multiplied artillery with greater ease; and, lastly, that they are more comfortable as habitable edifices. He then adverts to the inactivity of his countrymen in a taunting strain, which seems to be applied to the conductors of the French marine; in consequence of their having refused to sanction (or rather, perhaps, having totally disregarded) a memoir which the author presented to the minister, recommending the adoption of Sir Robert Seppings's new principle of construction; which memoir was afterward honourably received by our Royal Society, and published in their *Philosophical Transactions* for 1817.

Let us now take rather a hasty tour with M. DUPIN to our principal naval-yards and arsenals, and attend to the intelligent remarks which he offers concerning them. Of these establishments, the Dock-yard at Deptford forms the first object, and it is described with some degree of minuteness:

but it affords no feature of great importance, and is too limited in its extent to allow of the developement of those mechanical constructions which so highly distinguish the other naval arsenals of the kingdom. — Woolwich is then particularly noticed for its magnificent smithery, unquestionably the finest in any of the southern counties of England. It is entirely composed of brick, iron, stone, and slate; no timber being employed in its construction, in order to prevent the possibility of accidents by fire. The author's verbal description of this building is certainly too concise: but the reader is much assisted in his conception by a very correct plan of the building, forges, and machinery, for which M. DUPIN acknowledges his obligation to the architect who had the superintendence of its erection. The building contains three powerful steam-engines, which are applied, first, to the working of three large cylindrical iron-bellows for supplying all the forges with wind, which is forced into a strong iron wind-chest, and thence conducted by pipes to each forge, where it is turned off or on by a cock for the purpose; secondly, these engines furnish the moving powers to five immense hammers, by which the anchors, knees, and all the large iron-work for ships of war are forged with a facility truly astonishing; lastly, the power of these machines serves to put in motion various engines for boring, turning, drilling, and for cutting screws in iron and brass. All these constructions are very neatly exhibited in the proper situations, in one of the author's large folio plates. He has also given a plan of one of the roofs of construction in this yard by Mr. Hookey, and another by Sir Robert Seppings.

M. DUPIN now ascends the Medway, and visits the Dock-yard at Chatham, where he finds much to admire and to illustrate; particularly the saw-mills, erected on an eminence about 65 feet above the level of the river; and the machinery for bringing the timber up to this eminence, and stacking it along the slope of the hill at different distances from the mills. These mills, as we have said, are 65 feet above the level of the Medway, and about 360 feet distant from its bank: to this distance a subterraneous tunnel is cut; and at its farther extremity it communicates with a large well, of an elliptical form, about 60 feet in its longest axis, and 27 in its shortest, with a flight of steps round its inside by which persons may descend to the water. The timber is floated from the river through the canal just mentioned, and remains at the bottom of the well till it is drawn up by the following contrivance. On the upper part of the excavation, and some feet above the level of the earth, is fixed a beam, carrying

two immense iron wheels, over which a chain passes; having at one end a strong heavy platform for bringing up the timbers, and at the other a large iron semi-cylindric vessel, with its curved surface downwards. The timber now being brought on the platform, by sinking the latter under the former, the vessel of which we have spoken is necessarily above. Every thing being ready, water is discharged from a large cock into this vessel; and its weight quickly more than counterbalances the weight of the timber and platform, when the vessel descends and the latter ascends. The timber is now placed on a strong cast-iron carriage, which, moved by the machinery of the steam-engine, carries it to any intended point of the declivity of the hill, where it is to be stacked. In the mean time, a valve in the bottom of the vessel of water has been opened by striking against a strong pin placed in the well for that purpose: the water is thus discharged; and the empty vessel being lighter than the platform, this now descends and the vessel again rises. While this is going on, the carriage has returned to its place to receive the next piece which is to be brought up; and the water is again thrown into the vessel, which descends as before. — We have seen this operation performed, and we certainly never witnessed any mechanical contrivance which bore so strongly the appearance of enchantment. This process we owe to the fertile genius of Mr. Brunel, so deservedly celebrated for the conception of that master-piece of mechanism, the block-machinery at Portsmouth, of which we have seen a beautiful duplicate in Chatham Yard.

The author next proceeds to Sheerness; where the different works in progress are on the most magnificent scale, but are not of a description to be explained within the limits of this article. M. DUPIN, however, has entered into a very minute detail of them; and they are certainly, with the lineal representations which he has given of the docks, the mast-pond, &c., highly instructive to every man who feels an interest in those surprizing efforts of mechanical skill, by which this country is at the present day so proudly distinguished. Indeed, that skill has no where been more prominently displayed than at Sheerness; where the soil is of a description the most unfavourable that we can imagine for receiving the enormous masses by which it is oppressed. Since M. DUPIN visited this place, the water found its way under the front-revêtement, and carried off about eight feet of the sand from below the upper ends of the piles on which that wall rests; an accident which threatened for some time the entire demolition of these works: but by sinking a shaft, and applying masonry between the remain-

remaining upper surface of the soil and the bottom of the wall, a new degree of stability has been given to it; and there is now, we believe, every reasonable expectation of the successful termination of these important constructions.

In describing Portsmouth, the largest and most magnificent of all our naval establishments, the author has extended his account of its various departments through three distinct chapters; the first relating to the Dock-yard, the second to the Victualling-office, and the third to Haslar Hospital: — but his remarks here are rather more of a general character than those to which we have referred in the other yards. This circumstance may perhaps be explained by the impediments thrown in his way when he visited this place, of which he complains in a note at the bottom of one of his pages. His orders for liberty of inspection were the same here as in other places, but the officers of the yard appeared to have treated him with some rudeness. We certainly were rather disappointed in not finding a more detailed account of the various mechanical processes going forwards at Portsmouth; processes which we have frequently stood in admiration to behold, and which we should have been much pleased to have seen delineated by the pencil of the present author. It should be observed, however, that the celebrated block-machinery, and we suppose the copper-works, are purposely reserved for his projected work on naval architecture. The only drawings which he has given of the various interesting constructions at this port are elevations and ground plans of Haslar Hospital, and the long range of store-houses on the quay of the Dock-yard.

The most important work carrying on at Plymouth is the Breakwater, the Dock-yard itself being the poorest in machinery of any of our establishments. In fact, the only subjects deserving particular notice here are the store-houses, which are certainly very fine, particularly the roofs; and the ropewalks, which are also on a grand scale. A short chapter is appropriated to a description of the Plymouth Naval Hospital, and a very accurate view of this noble building is given in one of the plates. — Another chapter and a plate are allotted to describe and illustrate the Breakwater, and the manner in which the operations are conducted: but we have already extended this article too far to allow us to analyse these descriptions. — Five other plates are occupied with delineations of the different species of British naval ordnance.

Having throughout this report combined our own remarks with those of the author, we have little to add in conclusion: but we cannot omit to observe that M. DUPIN unquestionably

possesses great talent for observation and description; and that, with one exception only, we have little reason to complain of his candour. The work altogether cannot fail of being interesting not only to foreigners, but to a considerable class of Englishmen.

ART. VII. *Œuvres Complètes de M. Necker, &c.; i.e.* The Complete Works of M. Necker, published by the Baron DE STAËL HOLSTEIN, his Grandson. Vols. IV—VIII. 8vo. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz.

THE first three volumes of M. Necker's collective works were noticed in our last Appendix, p. 491.; and to that article the reader may be referred for a short biographical sketch of this celebrated individual.* We have now received five other volumes of the series, the contents of which it will suffice briefly to indicate.

Vols. IV. and V. are entirely occupied with the work *De l'Administration des Finances*, which appeared first in 1784; and which produced on public opinion an impression so decidedly favourable to the author's plans of reform, that it occasioned in less than four years his recall into a ministerial situation for the purpose of carrying them into effect.

Vol. VI. contains a commentary on the official conduct of M. Necker, written by himself, for the purpose of circulating various observations explanatory or apologetic as to his views; this extensive pamphlet first appeared in 1791.

The seventh volume comprehends a great variety of documents relative to the third administration of M. Necker; such as a Speech delivered at the Hotel de Ville on the 30th of July, 1789; Two Schemes of Loans; a Letter from the King to the Archbishops and Bishops; Pamphlets relative to the *Veto*, the Finances, and the Dearth of Corn; Project of a National Bank; Means of filling up the *Deficit* (a remarkable and well argued Pamphlet); Observations on various Taxes and Lists of Assessments; Protests against the Issue of Assignats; Observations on the charitable Employment of Labourers, on the Scarcity of Specie, and several other minor topics of legislation, concerning which it became the minister to record and defend his opinion.

In the eighth volume, we have a Dissertation on the Executive Power in Great Nations; endeavouring to shew that a

* It was by mistake that in the title of that article only two volumes were mentioned; the contents of the third being detailed in p. 495.

monarchical is preferable to a republican organization of it; although arbitrary, indefinite, and capricious authorities are allowed to be objectionable. As this treatise has less a temporary and occasional character than the previous writings, which were all prompted by the pressure of the moment, we will make an extract from the thirteenth chapter, which treats of the forms to be observed towards a king:

‘ It is not merely by the help of the real prerogatives attached to the executive power, that the high consideration which it needs, and the imposing character of dignity implied in its action, are best to be formed and supported. It will ever be found indispensable to surround the chief of the state with every thing that can overawe the imagination. We are all accessible to different kinds of impressions. A long education of our spiritual faculties, — the gift of leisure and of wealth, — may enable some of us to subject our impressions to the slow results of enlightened meditation: but the greater number of men, those who are obliged to allot to lucrative occupations the first developement of their powers, will always remain under the sway of the simplest ideas. This is no reproach to their intellect, but an inevitable consequence of their humble fortune. By an effect of these indestructible truths, connected with our very nature and with our social position, it is necessary, in order to maintain in a great empire the mysterious links of subordination, to captivate alike both rapid sentiments and reflected sentiments.

‘ The greater part of mankind, exclusively attentive to those ideas of pride or vanity which the lustre of their rank has inspired in princes, have been led to consider this splendor as indifferent to the interests of society; and the petty philosophers of the times, taking a stride farther, have represented as a degradation to the citizen every mark of respect paid to the majesty of the monarch: — but the illusions of kings, as to the origin and spirit of these several acts of homage, must not be allowed to bewilder us, and to withdraw our regard from those primary ideas and general views, which have made a political element of the splendor of the throne, and of its mild influence on the imagination of men.

‘ The National Assembly has not kept these primary ideas sufficiently present to its memory, or it has sacrificed them too lightly to passionate considerations. The more daily the prerogatives of the monarch were curtailed, the more essential it became carefully to preserve the habits of respect for his supreme rank. By reducing the efficacious means of ascendancy and authority, it was rendered the more necessary not to obscure his crown of beams. But I know not how our lawgivers can have always regarded the obedience of a great nation as a simple idea, which it sufficed to fix by an article of the law. It had been decreed that the executive power should be confided to the hands of the monarch, but nothing was done definitely to constitute this power. The French government has been declared monarchical, but the manner has been discussed in which the majesty of the throne should be

The utility of a monarch does not consist, however,
in

in his title, but in all the accompaniments of royalty; in those different attributes which captivate attachment, impose respect, and command obedience. In short, and I am perhaps indicating a great topic for reflection, those sentiments have been despised which result from habit and opinion; and it has not been perceived that the authority of monarchy over these very sentiments is that which contra-distinguishes the king from the law, and lends him a peculiar force.

‘The National Assembly would perhaps have perceived all these truths, if it had not too early listened to the promptings of jealousy. It began by considering the king as a rival, instead of assuming in its legislative capacity to employ him as the principal actor in a monarchical government, and to assign him his part with prudence. During the session, he has been repeatedly called *the first public functionary*, instead of being recognized as *the hereditary representative of the nation*; and it has not been perceived that to realize this rational denomination will require much of their work to be re-fashioned. What would be said of a painter, who, after having attempted on his canvass the figure of the most eminent deity of mythology, should perceive that he had not placed in heaven the master of the earth, and should expect to repair the important omission by writing the word *Jupiter* under his human figure?’

This passage may suffice to give some notion of the style of thinking and writing which distinguished M. Necker. We discern in it but little depth or clearness of idea, and little precision or picturesqueness of style: all is expressed in vague abstractions, — in general terms which aim at clothing trivial sentiments in important habiliments. He has the *verbiage* without the penetration of the philosopher, and his discussions rather reveal obstacles than conduct to decision. He hoped to lead by affecting docility, but had neither the force of reason nor the courage which, in difficult times, is requisite for practical command. Vanity was his greatest weakness, — benevolence of purpose his greatest strength, — moderation his guardian genius.

Many more volumes are in the progress of impression, which we shall willingly announce in succession. — The ninth and tenth have been delivered to us since the preceding pages were written.

ART. VIII. *Precis ou Histoire abrégée des Guerres de la Revolution Française, &c.; i.e. An Abridged History of the Wars of the French Revolution, from 1792 to 1815.* By a Society of Military Men, under the Direction of M. Tissot, Professor of Latin Poetry in the College of France, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 18s.

A VOLUMINOUS collection of the *Victories and Conquests of the French Armies* had been already published, when this *Precis* was undertaken: but an excess of detail and a parade of

of military *verbiage* rendered that extensive commentary unfit for the purposes of popular history. The authors of this epitome have done well, therefore, to condense its turgid substance, to omit its controversial criticism, to arrange its narrative in a more lucid order, and to give a proportion to its parts more commensurate with the relative influence of the events under contemplation. This has been well performed; and the *Abridged History of the Wars of the French Revolution*, now before us, merits the praise of a compendious yet sufficiently complete sketch of the operations of the French armies: but severe and partial estimates of the conduct of the adverse forces are occasionally interspersed; on which account it is important that military men, who have been engaged against the French, should peruse it with the vigilance of mistrust, and record such protests against its contents as may in places be requisite. With respect to the French themselves, however, we do not discover any obvious marks of personal or party prejudice; on the contrary, we perceive a courageous and independent as well as a judicious spirit of appreciation. The style is simple, rapid, unaffected, and occasionally rises to eloquence, where a fine action is to be brought out for notice. Perhaps the narrative, like one of Sir Walter Scott's poems, abounds too much with proper names; and the desire of illustrating every thing eminent, within reach, has somewhat tended to overload the reader's memory with individualities, and to lessen the prominence by multiplying the competition of excellence.

Five principal sections are pointed out in the table of contents, one being allotted to each of the five coalitions against France; and these sections are again subdivided into annals. Thus the campaigns of 1792, of 1793, of 1794, of 1795, of 1796, of 1797, and of 1798, form successive rather than separate chapters of the military history of the first coalition. The second coalition terminates in 1803, the third in 1805, the fourth in 1811, and the fifth in 1815. The book is made to consist of two volumes: but the numeration of pages continues through the second, which begins at page 421., and finishes at page 1102.

At page 44. of the first volume, the evacuation of Toulon by the British is narrated in the following words:

‘ The English, under the command of Admiral Lord Hood, had put Toulon in a respectable state of defence, when General Cartaux marched to this place with some troops, after the reduction of Marseilles. He was soon joined by General Dugommier, who brought reinforcements, and took the chief command of the army. It required all the wisdom of the measures pursued by this General,

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in concert with *Marescot*, the commandant of the engineers, and all the vigour of the commissaries of the Convention, to secure the success of so difficult an enterprize as the recovery of Toulon, with means so weak as they possessed. The English had constructed, on a height opposite to the village of Seine, a great redoubt, for which its precipitous form and successive rows of fortification had acquired the name of *Little Gibraltar*. Surrounded with numerous palisades, with deep ditches, and felled trees, and defended by fifteen hundred men and thirty-six pieces of cannon, this redoubt was, in a manner, inaccessible; and perhaps our military annals furnish no finer action than the taking of this formidable work. Imagination would hardly invent the miracles which were then realities. Masters of all the outposts by means of efforts which triumphed over every obstacle of time and place, of men, of art, and of nature, the French at length inclosed the English in Toulon, and could direct their batteries on the town. The enemy, alarmed, decided to evacuate it; when these faithful friends of an unfortunate king set fire to the arsenal, to the store-houses of the marine, and to those ships which they could not carry off. At the sight of these flames, which illuminated the whole city, a cry of horror and rage arose in the republican army. All the soldiers demanded to be led to the attack in order to prevent the English from embarking, and punish them for their barbarity, but it was too late. The galley-slaves, however, who had broken their chains, and had thrown themselves into the arsenal, were less ferocious than the English, and were occupied in extinguishing those burning matches which the others had applied.

In page 190. the battle of the bridge of Lodi is thus detailed :

‘ This valiant band darted towards the bridge with cries of “ Long live the Republic ! ” in spite of the fire of thirty field-pieces which swept it. In the middle of the bridge the grape-shot, so painfully fatal, occasioned some hesitation among these heroes, and a prolongation of the uncertainty might have disappointed their whole enterprize. *Berthier*, *Massena*, *Cervoni*, *Dallemagne*, and the intrepid *Lannes*, rushed in competition to support by their example the shaken valour of their soldiers. Altogether they cross the bridge, trample down the first line of the enemy, seize his cannon, and disperse his battalions. The Generals *Augereau*, *Rusca*, and *Bayrand* immediately followed at the head of their divisions, and decide the victory. The entire army of *Sebottendorf* would have been destroyed, if the French cavalry could have pursued the conquered : but General *Beaumont*, who commanded it, had orders to ford the Adda at *Mozzanica*, and to attack in flank. The ford was found scarcely practicable, and the cavalry did not arrive soon enough to complete the destruction of the enemy.

‘ The affair of Lodi threw *Beaulieu* behind the Mincio, opened to us the gates of Pizzighettone and Cremona, and occasioned heavy losses to the Austrian army. This day, also, so glorious

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for all the chiefs and all the soldiers, confirmed the reputation which *Bonaparte* had resolved to create for General *Berthier*: but, whatever *Berthier* may have done to justify the praise of a chief who had already remarked in him the qualities which please a master, he could never support a comparison with *Lannes* for intrepidity, with *Serrurier* for skill, or with *Massena* for coolness and talent of command. *Berthier* was born to obey a great captain, like a good officer: but *Massena* was worthy to second even *Bonaparte*, to support him by his strength of mind, and sometimes to equal him by importance of success.

Our readers will perceive in this paragraph a precision and boldness of critical appreciation; and that care is taken to bring out the peculiar and distinct personal qualities of the various French Generals who come under notice. Thus public opinion is prepared to award to every one his due; and, if the prejudices of royalism should overlook their relative merit, a consolation is provided in national esteem.

In the second volume, p. 524., Sir John Moore's retreat is related with undeserved ridicule. Of the Walcheren expedition, it is observed (p. 632.) that, if the English had used their advantages skilfully, they might have seized on Antwerp, and thence have promoted an important insurrection in Holland and the north of Germany. — The concluding part of the volume examines in great detail the peninsular war, and cannot fail to be essentially useful to the historian.

A translation of this work might require some corrective notes: but our native literature is still in want of so convenient and brief an account of the principal campaigns of the late war. The prodigious inutility of the contest is its most remarkable feature. After battles which disposed of empires, and seemed to have ploughed up all the land-marks of geography, antient boundaries were mostly restored, and even governments re-assumed the form which they wore when it began.

ART. IX. *Regni Vegetabilis Systema Naturale; sive Ordines, Genera, et Species Plantarum, secundum Methodi Naturalis normas digestarum et descriptarum; Auctore AUG. PYRAMO DE CANDOLLE. Volumen Secundum; sistens Ordines Sex, nempe Berberideas, Podophylleas, Nymphæaceas, Papaveraceas, Fumariaceas, et Cruciferas.* 8vo. pp. 745. Paris, Strasburgh, and London, Treuttel and Würtz. 1821. Price 1l. 1s.

IT is with much satisfaction that we now announce the publication of a second volume of the *Natural System*, by the accurate and indefatigable M. DE CANDOLLE. He proceeds in his

his labours with the same unwearied industry and minute correctness, and with the same striking felicity in seizing on points of affinity and characteristic marks, which we so justly praised when noticing his former volume. (See M. R. vol. lxxxvi.) Indeed, we are disposed to think that the present affords a still more favourable evidence of his talents and extensive botanical acquirements. In the first part of it, M. DE C. terminates his account of the first cohort of *Thalamifloræ*, by the consideration of the orders *Berberideæ*, *Podophylleæ*, and *Nymphæaceæ*; and the remainder is occupied with the second cohort of this sub-class, consisting of four orders, *Papaveraceæ*, *Fumariaceæ*, *Cruciferaæ*, and *Capparideæ*: but the last of these is merely defined, the volume closing with the *Cruciferaæ*. In considering each order, the author commences by an enumeration of synonyms, and then gives the general character. He next describes the fructification, and then the vegetation of the plants which it comprehends; stating under the latter of these heads their shrubby or herbaceous nature, their duration, and the character of their leaves and inflorescence. Next follows the history of the order, which in most instances presents striking proofs of the wonderful progress of botanical knowledge in late years.

‘Although,’ says M. DE C., ‘the *Cruciferaæ* be frequent in Greece and Italy, we find few of them described or even mentioned in the writings of the ancients. Scarcely 22 species can be certainly determined as occurring in the works of Hippocrates, Theophrastus, Dioscorides, and Pliny. C. Bauhin was acquainted with 141 species of *Cruciferaæ*; Tournefort with 240. Linné, who intentionally omitted many of the species, noted only in the peculiar phraseology of Tournefort, has described 234; Willdenow, 413; Person, 504. Nine hundred species are now described; and above seventy others, although admitted into books, are not yet sufficiently known to allow of their obtaining a place among accurately described plants. Of the nine hundred well ascertained species, I myself have seen 880. This remarkable increase in the order *Cruciferaæ* is principally to be ascribed to the indefatigable exertions with which the distinguished botanists Fischer, Steven, Marschall à Biebenstein, Goldbach, and others, have prosecuted their examination of the indigenous plants of the Russian empire. Very many new species have also been recently discovered in various countries, by the celebrated Humboldt, Burchell, Lagasca, &c. (P. 142.)

The succeeding object of the author’s attention, in considering the orders, is the geographical distribution of the plants which they comprehend.

‘The order *Cruciferaæ*,’ he remarks, ‘is peculiarly European; since 166 species inhabit northern and central Europe, and 178

are found on the northern shores or islands of the Mediterranean sea. Forty-five species occur in northern Africa, from Mogadore to Alexandria: 184 in what are named the eastern countries, Syria, Asia Minor, Tauria, and Persia; 99 species in Siberia; 35 in China, Japan, or India; 16 in New Holland, and the islands of the southern ocean; 6 in the Isles of France and Bourbon; 70 in the southern promontory of Africa; 9 in the Canary islands or Madeira; 2 in St. Helena; 2 in the Caribbee islands; 41 in South America; 48 in the northern division of the same continent; 5 in the Aleutian islands, between North America and Kamschatka: and 35 species are now common to many parts of the globe. The 41st degree of northern latitude appears to be the equatorial line of the *Cruciferae*; one half of them being found to the north, and the other to the south of that line. The *Cruciferae* inhabit the most different situations; many are to be seen in exposed and sandy plains, while others select the highest peaks of mountains, close to perpetual snows, and constitute the extreme limit of vegetation: others, again, which are very frequently detected in inhabited places, have been dispersed by man unconsciously over the whole surface of the globe.

The consideration of the virtues of the plants of each respective order next succeeds, and then its affinities. At the close of the description of the orders, such general observations are introduced on the subject of the classification of the genera, or other topics, as could not find a place under the preceding heads.

Cruciferae constitute the most important and extensive of all the orders yet described in detail by M. DE C. It corresponds to *Tetradynamia* of Linné, and includes the whole of that class, together with very many additions, which the rapid progress of the science has enabled the author to present now for the first time in a systematic and incorporated form. He has drawn up an useful conspectus of the genera of this order, exhibiting a double classification of them: in one of which the distinctive characters are taken from the fruit, and in the other from the cotyledons. On the former of these principles, we have the six following divisions: *Siliquosæ*, *Latisepiæ*, *Angustisepiæ*, *Nucamentaceæ*, *Septulatæ*, *Lomentaceæ*; and on the latter we have the capital sections of Cotyledons accumbent and Cotyledons incumbent, which are afterward subdivided and distinguished into tribes.

M. DE CANDOLLE continues, as in his former volume, to shew a propensity to the institution of new genera, but never (we think) without very sufficient reasons. *Capsella Bursa Pastoris* is now admitted by him instead of *Thlaspi B. P.* — *Malcolmia* of Brown is received; and *Alliaria* of Adanson assumes as species, *Erysimum Alliaria* and *Raphanus Tauricus*,

under the names *Officinalis* and *Brachycarpa*. To enter minutely, however, into the multiplied alterations, improvements, and new acquisitions, which the volume before us contains, would require a much greater space than we can at present allow; and we shall soon have an opportunity of advertg to M. DE CANDOLLE's merits at greater length.

No exertion on the part of the author has been spared to render his work as accurate and complete as it can possibly be made: he has not only drawn his rich store of materials from all the published writings on botany, and from the collections of cultivated and dried plants in the different countries of Europe, but he has availed himself of inedited manuscripts, and of facts communicated to him in the letters or conversation of botanists. Altogether, therefore, we do not hesitate to assert that this is by much the most extensive and most arduous undertaking which has been attempted since the publication of the *Systema Naturæ* of Linné; and we may add that, as far as it has been hitherto carried, it excels all its predecessors in luminousness of arrangement, accuracy of description, and extent of erudite research. — At the close of the volume, we have a supplement to the *Bibliotheca Botanica* formerly given; containing the titles, we believe, of all the new works in that department of science which have been published since the appearance of M. DE C.'s first volume.

ART. X. *Des Systèmes d'Économie Politique, &c.* Par M GANILH.

[Art. concluded from vol. xciv. p. 516.]

ADAM SMITH was the first writer who explained clearly and distinctly the nature of stock; the effects of its accumulation into capitals of different kinds, and the result of different employments of those capitals. The general stock of a country, being the same with that of all its members, divides itself into the same three portions into which the capital of individuals is divided, and each portion performs a distinct function. (*Wealth of Nations*, book ii. chap. i.) The first is that portion which is reserved for immediate consumption, and of which the characteristic is that it affords no revenue or profit; such as clothes, furniture, the houses in which we dwell, &c. The second portion is fixed capital; the characteristic of which is that it yields a profit without circulating or changing hands: such as instruments of trade, machinery, shops, warehouses, farm-buildings, granaries, and talents; that is to say, the capital which is fixed and realized in the

individual who possesses them, by means of education, study, and instruction. The third portion is circulating capital; of which the characteristic is that it affords a revenue *only* by circulating and changing masters: such as money, which distributes the other two to their respective consumers; provisions, in the possession of the butcher, brewer, farmer, corn-merchant, &c.; materials for making clothes, furniture, buildings, &c.; and, lastly, work already made up and completed, but as yet remaining in the hands of the manufacturer or merchant for sale. All fixed capital is originally derived from circulating capital, requires to be continually supported by it, and can yield no revenue but by its assistance. Some modern writers (M. Say and M. Canard) rank land, mines, and fisheries, as capital; regarding them as instruments of production, and analogous to machines employed for that purpose. Although it may be true that these are the three great sources that supply the portion of the circulating capital of a country which is annually and hourly withdrawn from it; and although, as Dr. Smith has observed, "Land even replaces, in part at least, the capitals with which fisheries and mines are cultivated; for it is the produce of land which draws the fish from the waters, and the produce of the surface of the earth which extracts the minerals from its bowels;" yet land, mines, and fisheries, all require both a fixed and a circulating capital to be employed on them.

M. GANILH thinks that 'we shall form an exact and complete idea of capitals, if we consider them as composed of the products of labour, employed in the production of objects calculated to satisfy the wants or promote the enjoyments of men:' (book iii. chap. i.) but, however comprehensive, and in that sense complete, this definition may be, it is not so discriminative as that of Adam Smith; for land, mines, and fisheries, stripped of the implements and machinery by means of which they are worked, would hardly merit the denomination of capital: their spontaneous produce being scarcely any thing. Withdraw from land its culture, and from fisheries their boats, nets, the arts of salting, drying, curing, &c. which they require; take from mines the various machinery by which their ores are obtained from the bowels of the earth, smelted, &c.; what remains? Yet all these implements and arts are labour under different forms: that great source from which alone every thing useful and valuable is obtained. Capitals, says Dr. Smith, are increased by parsimony and diminished by prodigality; — parsimony and not industry is the immediate cause of the increase of capital. Industry, indeed, provides the subject which parsimony accumulates: but, whatever

industry might acquire, if parsimony did not save and store up, the capital would never be the greater. (*Wealth of Nations*, b. ii. ch. iii.) Lord Lauderdale, in the fourth chapter of his "Enquiry into the Nature and Origin of Public Wealth," has adduced some delusive and unsound reasoning against the doctrine that economy is a public benefit. "If pushed beyond its due bounds," says he, "the public would suffer by this love of accumulation, first, in the creation of a capital larger than is wanted; and, secondly, by withdrawing a part of the encouragement to reproduction." *If pushed beyond its due bounds*—yes: but this very qualification is in fact giving up the point. His Lordship begins by scattering general invectives against the doctrine of those who esteem thriftiness to be preferable to prodigality, with reference to society; and then we find him qualifying his censure by stating that his reasons are applicable only to an *excess* of accumulation:—which, we humbly presume, nobody ever thought of denying. Nobody would contend for the advantages of an *excessive* accumulation of capital: that is to say, of adding still more by parsimony to an amount of capital already greater, by the terms of the supposition, than can be profitably employed:—but a general denunciation against accumulation is surely very unnecessary, not to say injurious. A few misers, tottering on the verge of insanity, may hoard and bury up their useless wealth: but, taking society at large, men accumulate only for the purpose of future expenditure; they abstain, for the sake of future enjoyment; and they labour, to give additional zest to repose. The accumulation of capital, therefore, ultimately gives existence and employment to additional numbers of mankind, and, in creating more labour, it is the occasion of greater consumption. M. GANILH has combated Lord Lauderdale's doctrine with great ability; and indeed, throughout, the book which treats on the formation, employment, and effects of capitals, exhibits much acuteness and force of argument.

When Adam Smith speaks of the advantages of frugality, he is quite willing to concede that "great nations are never impoverished by private though they sometimes are by public prodigality and misconduct;" adding that the whole or nearly the whole public revenue is in most countries employed in maintaining unproductive hands. "It is the highest impertinence, therefore," he goes on to say, "and presumption in kings and ministers to pretend to watch over the economy of private people, and to restrain their expence either by sumptuary laws, or by prohibiting the importation of foreign luxuries. They are themselves, always and without any exception,

exception, the greatest spendthrifts in the society. Let them look well after their own expence, and they may safely trust private people with theirs. If their own extravagance does not ruin the state, that of their subjects never will." (B. ii. ch. iii.) Perhaps, the difference, however, is more in appearance than reality between Lord Lauderdale and M. GANILH. The latter says that 'wealth is the excess of the products of labour beyond consumption.' This excess, it is obvious, can only be effected in two ways, viz. by consuming less or producing more. Accumulation, then, is equally the result of both these operations; that is, of greater frugality as well as of greater industry: — but frugality in the first instance leads to industry in the second: setting it in motion and giving it encouragement by preparing a capital to pay for its future and increased exertions. "Popular prejudice," says Lord Lauderdale, (ch. iv. p. 209.) "has pointed out parsimony, or accumulation, by a man's depriving himself of the objects of desire to which his fortune entitles him (the usual means of increasing private fortune), as the most active means of increasing public wealth." When political economists, however, speak of parsimony, we conceive they do it not abstractedly, but with reference to resources; parsimony is not recommended as a virtue *per se*, but as the means of increasing an amount of capital, which may ultimately lead to still greater consumption. Economy, then, is recommended by Dr. Smith, by the present, and by nearly all other writers, as the most efficient means of leading to that extension, and, if we may use the term, prodigality of consumption which is advocated by his Lordship: who, making an ill-founded and paradoxical distinction between individual riches and public wealth, would, as it appears to us, begin at the wrong end.

Indeed, Lord Lauderdale has amused himself with one of the most sophistical positions that ingenuity, in its most wanton and sportive moments, ever imagined. It is, not only that the capital of a society is not the same as the aggregate capitals of all the individual members of that society, but "that in proportion as the riches of individuals are increased by an augmentation of the value of any commodity, the wealth of the nation is generally diminished; and in proportion as the mass of individual riches is diminished by the diminution of the value of any commodity, the national opulence is generally increased." (Ch. ii. p. 50.) The way by which his Lordship arrives at such a conclusion is this: he defines *public wealth* "to consist of all that man desires, as useful or delightful to him." The more of these things, therefore, a nation can command, the more wealthy it is: — but he defines

finer individual riches "to consist of all that man desires as useful or delightful to him—*which exists in a degree of scarcity.*" (P. 56, 57.) By adding this quality of *scarceness*, therefore, he makes the riches of individuals depend on the scarcity of the commodities which they possess, while the wealth of the nation depends on the abundance of them. The fallacy of this reasoning evidently arises from confounding *absolute* with *relative*, and *exchangeable* with *intrinsic* value. Suppose that half the springs of a country were to be suddenly dried up, and that a scarcity of water was experienced, (we are taking one of his Lordship's illustrations, p. 44.) the wealth of that country, consisting of "all that is useful or delightful to man," would be grievously diminished. It is certain, however, says Lord L., that the mass of individual riches would be increased: to the useful and delightful qualities of water which existed before, scarcity would now be added, for every spring would have its value, and the individual riches of the country would be augmented in a sum equal to the value of the fee-simple of all the wells. How so? The riches of those specific individuals, who had the good fortune to possess any of these wells, would indeed be increased by the transference of some part of the riches of other people in exchange for the water: but, inasmuch as these individuals were enriched, those other people would be impoverished; and how the bare *transference* of riches from one individual to another should add to the aggregate mass of them is beyond our political arithmetic to understand.

Still farther to illustrate his proposition, Lord L. supposes as great an abundance of any species of food to be created in a country as there exists of water: then, the quality of *scarceness* being withdrawn from that article of food, it would cease to have value; and, by occasioning such an abundance, it follows that the sum-total of individual riches would be diminished to an extent equal to the total value of that species of food, of which the value would by this means be destroyed! According to this reasoning, in a country where *every* article of food is, by the terms of the supposition, allowed to exist in the same abundance as water; and where "all that man desires as useful or delightful to him" is spread by the beneficence of nature in prodigality before him; in such a country, teeming with redundant wealth, all riches are destroyed, extinct, annihilated! A more strange and wanton inversion of language was, surely, never hazarded.

Lord Lauderdale reprobates accumulation, conceiving most erroneously that it operates to discourage future reproduction. M. GANILH and others condemn prodigality exactly

for the same reason : because it discourages future reproduction by cutting off the means of paying for it. A desire to obtain the comforts and luxuries of life is universal ; and, in an infinite majority of cases, it exists where the power of giving efficacy to it is absent : but the existence of the power to obtain these comforts and luxuries, unaccompanied by the desire, is a rare phenomenon. Yet his Lordship acknowledges that capital, in the progress of wealth and knowledge, is subject to wonderful enlargement ; although he asserts that it has its limits, beyond which it cannot with advantage be increased. " There must be at all times," says he, (p.228.) " a point determined by the existing state of knowledge in the art of supplanting and performing labour with capital, beyond which capital cannot profitably be increased, and beyond which it will not naturally increase ; because the quantity, when it exceeds that point, must increase in proportion to the demand for it, and its value must of consequence diminish in such a manner as effectually to check its augmentation." If there be a point, as the boy fancied who ran to reach it, at which the Rainbow touches the earth, and where he expected to find a bag of money under the turf, it has never yet been discovered ; and there is no greater chance of discovering the point beyond which capital may not, with advantage, be increased and employed. Such advantageous increase and employment, if not infinite, are illimitable. The number of labourers, who at once furnish productions and promote consumption, may go on indefinitely to enlarge with an augmenting population. If it overflows its bank in one channel, it will work for itself another, and another, meandering over the immeasurable surface of human society, and every where spreading fertility in its progress. We may apply to it the language of the Poet, and say,

— " From its prolific springs,
A thousand rills their mazy progress take ;
The laughing flowers that round them blow
Drink life and fragrance as they flow."

When, through an increase of capital, wages rise, and the profits of stock are lowered, labourers become more active consumers ; they have a greater command over the necessities and over the enjoyments of life ; they have the means super-added to the natural desire to consume : but an increase of capital must come from accumulation, and accumulation from the excess of production beyond consumption. Lord Lauderdale is fearful that the spirit of accumulation may be carried too far, so as to be indulged without any ulterior object.

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Thus he observes that, after food and clothing, — the objects of universal desire, — all farther desires with regard to wealth arise from the possession of it, which man alone has the faculty of increasing by his own exertions. A poor man eats coarse bread, satisfies his thirst with water, covers himself with rags, and lies on straw, but even in that state enjoys contentment. Increase his wealth, and his desires extend themselves: he eats better bread, drinks some liquor prepared by art, clothes himself better, and naturally enlarges his desires to views of comfort: till from comforts he proceed to luxuries. In the mercantile sense of the word, demand is not to be considered as a mere wish or desire, but as a desire attended with the means of acquiring the object of it. It is most important to remark, his Lordship says, that, though the mere wish or desire of possessing can never furnish the means of acquiring, yet a little observation on the conduct of men shews us that the means of acquiring will very certainly and very rapidly instil the desire of possessing. (P. 315.) We contend that the desire of possessing *does* furnish the means of acquiring: our desires always exceed our possessions; and “*enough* is a little more than we have.” Every thing is obtained originally by labour: the desire of possessing, then, in stimulating to exertions of labour, does furnish the means of acquiring, however those means may be forcibly diminished by excessive taxation. Consumption is the measure of production, because no one will long continue to produce commodities for which he cannot find consumers. That there may be a temporary excess of production, however, the state of every market in Europe since the peace has abundantly testified; and this excess must arise from a miscalculation as to the taste or as to the means of consumers: but the infinite diversity of the former must prevent it from having more than a local and transient operation. Excessive taxation, like a stroke of the palsy, withers the strength of the labourer's arm, and his hard earnings are transferred to the idle classes of society. Here has been the main miscalculation: the people have been every where impoverished by war: they have the desire to consume, but not the means.

The difference between Adam Smith and M. GANILH, as to the formation of capital, arises from their different views respecting the nature of labour. The former, it is well known, distinguishes labour into two sorts, one that adds to the value of the subject on which it is bestowed, and is denominated productive; the other, which makes no such addition, is therefore called unproductive. Mr. Malthus also regards this distinction of Dr. Smith as the corner-stone of his work, as

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the foundation on which the chief weight of his reasoning reposes. Our readers, if they will take the trouble of referring to the former part of this article, will see that M. GANILH does not restrict the term productiveness to any peculiar kind of labour, but contends that it is common to all sorts and descriptions of labour, because each has an exchangeable value: indeed, it would not be called into existence without that value. This was particularly the object of investigation in the first three chapters of the second book, and it is revived here with an especial reference to M. Say and to Mr. Malthus; the latter of whom, in his work on Political Economy, had expressed his dissent from M. GANILH's theory. Moreover, the author before us, a strenuous advocate of the mercantile system, will not allow the superior productiveness of agricultural labour, for which Dr. Smith contends; because it limits accumulation, and because the distribution of its products offers little encouragement to works of ingenuity, to arts, and to sciences. *

While Mr. Malthus considers the distinction of Adam Smith as the corner-stone of his work, he nevertheless seems to feel the force of M. GANILH's objection to it, and actually suggests the substitution of the terms *more or less* productive to the terms productive and unproductive: (ch. i. sec. 2.) but this is giving up the very point in dispute, and M. GANILH may well charge him with being an accomplice in the heresy which he denounces. No labour is unproductive. Mr. M. first combats the doctrine, but immediately satisfies himself with graduating a scale of the productiveness of labour, leaving sterility below zero.

'Is the labour of servants,' says M. GANILH, 'and of those classes whom Adam Smith calls unproductive, in point of fact more or less productive of wealth than the labour of husbandmen and manufacturers? That depends entirely on the value which exchange gives to their respective labours. If exchange assigns to the labour of a servant the value of a thousand francs, and to that of an husbandman or a manufacturer only five hundred, we must conclude that the labour of the servant contributes twice as much to the production of wealth as that of the manufacturer or husbandman. How can it be otherwise, as long as the labour of the former receives in payment twice as much material products as the latter? For how is it possible to conceive that the most wealth proceeds from that labour which has the least value in exchange, and is consequently the worst paid? — In vain is it objected that, if

* See farther observations on productive and unproductive classes, in Art. II. of our Review for September, published with this Appendix.

the labour of servants be equally productive with that of husbandmen and manufacturers, it is not very obvious why the general savings of a country should not be employed in maintaining the former, not only without being dissipated, but even with a constant augmentation of value. The speciousness of this objection consists in assuming that the productiveness of each sort of labour depends on its co-operation in the production of material objects; that material production constitutes wealth; and that production and wealth are identical. We forget that production is not wealth unless it meets with consumption, and that exchange determines the degree in which it contributes to the formation of wealth.'— 'As long as we refuse to acknowledge that it is from the union of all sorts of labours, of all productions, of all exchanges, and of all consumptions, that wealth is derived, we shall have false and incomplete notions of its nature, its causes, and its effects on civil society.' (Vol. i. p. 293.)

On the operation of the funding system, we find this author in opposition to Adam Smith. We shall not plunge our readers into the troubled waters of this controversy, but we cannot pass without notice a criticism to which we by no means assent.

Dr. Smith says that, when the public expence is defrayed by funding, it is defrayed by the annual destruction of some capital which had before existed in the country; that a certain portion of the annual produce is turned away from serving in the function of a capital, to serve in that of a revenue; to be spent and wasted, generally in the course of the year, without even the hope of reproduction. Were the expence of war to be defrayed always by a revenue raised within the year, the taxes from which it was drawn would last no longer than the war itself. War would not necessarily occasion the destruction of *old*, and peace would occasion the accumulation of *new* capitals. Wars would be more speedily concluded and less wantonly undertaken. The people, feeling, during the continuance of war, the complete burden of it, would soon grow weary, and the government would not carry it on longer than it was necessary. (*Wealth of Nations*, book v. chap. iii. *passim*.)

Is there not abundance of good sense in all this? No, says M. GANILH, the experience of ages contradicts the position:

'In no age or country has war been subservient to the means of carrying it on: the passions which are engaged neither bar themselves with what it may cost, nor with the evils which it may entail. When both ordinary and extraordinary resources are exhausted, it is carried on by plunder; and its miseries, far from accelerating, retard the period of its duration. It is only since loans have furnished the means of defraying its expences, that it

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has lost any of its intensity and exasperation ; that it has been of shorter duration, and, if I may say so, less fatal to the people. Each year of war renders the necessary loan more difficult and more ruinous ; belligerent parties are annually reminded of the exhaustion of their strength ; and this periodical memento compels them, in spite of themselves, to contemplate a peace, and to terminate a war of which the expences are ruinous, and the objects are almost always delusive.' (Book iii. chap. iv.)

How any body could have penned this paragraph, who had not shut his eyes against the political state of Europe during the last five-and-twenty years, is perfectly astonishing. It seems to us that nothing could have furnished a commentary on Dr. Smith's opinions more firmly establishing their truth, than the history of Europe during that period, and the present impoverished state of the people in every part of it. So great, so ruinous has been the funding system in this country, that the multiplication of taxes, which it has brought with it, has as much impaired the ability of private individuals to accumulate in time of peace, as the other system would have done in time of war. M. GANILH's elaborate eulogy on the Sinking Fund comes rather too late to be of use to us : where is it to be found ?

We have already extended this article to such a length, that many subjects of discussion must be unnoticed : a circumstance the less to be regretted, however, as there are few if any of them which have not been introduced in some of the numerous articles that have appeared in our Review on works relating to political economy. We must now be very brief.

Some person has observed that the search after an invariable standard of value is like the search after the philosopher's stone. Most writers agree that no such standard exists, and yet all, feeling the immense value of this imaginary measure, still continue to look for it. Lord Lauderdale brings forwards several passages from Adam Smith that are not easily reconcilable with each other ; some stating his opinion that labour may be considered as an accurate standard of value, and others shewing that labour itself is subject to as much variation of value as other commodities, not only at different times and places, but at the same time and place. Adam Smith, however, when he says (b. i. ch. v.) that "labour alone, never varying, is alone the ultimate and real standard by which the value of all commodities can at all times and places be estimated and compared," in the very same page qualifies and explains the dogma by saying that labour, in the popular sense, "like other commodities, may be said to have a real and a nominal price." M. GANILH quotes Lord Lauderdale's refutation :

futation: but we conceive that Dr. Smith no more intended to represent labour as a perfect and immutable standard of value, unaffected by the proportion of supply to demand, of science, skill, dexterity, &c., than that Mr. Ricardo, who likewise regards the quantity of labour (or in other words the cost of production) as the real foundation of all exchangeable value, intended so to represent it, because in his Principles of Political Economy he adopts it as the best approximation to an invariable standard that can be found; being that which, more or less, enters into every other commodity, and is every instant brought to market in some shape to be exchanged. M. GANILH, dissatisfied with any thing short of perfection, opposes at considerable length (and not without much ingenuity) the adoption of Mr. Ricardo's standard, and allows of no other than exchangeable value; 'the market,' says he, 'is the universal and only law of all values.' (Book v. chap. ii.) Mr. Ricardo, we presume, would not deny this, or that the market promulgates and dispenses the law of values: but he would say that labour *makes* that law: labour sets the value, the market proclaims it.

In a chapter intitled, '*Which is the most advantageous to a Country, its Foreign or Domestic Commerce?*' in opposition to Adam Smith the award is given to the former; and in another, (book v. chap. vi.) which treats of corporations and privileged companies, M. GANILH agrees with the great father of political economy that they are nuisances which ought to be abolished. We are not a little startled, however, to find him advocating bounties, drawbacks, &c., which are only branches of the tree that he had just before whetted his axe (as we thought) to cut down. The arguments of Adam Smith on this subject (book iv. chap. v.) are too well known to need repetition here, however slender may have been their practical effect. M. GANILH thus combats them:

'If, as there is every reason to believe, a bounty has for its object the extension of national commerce by requiring only a smaller profit, or the securing a preference of national over local commerce, it must be acknowledged that a bounty, far from being burdensome to the country which grants it, is highly profitable. Thus, for instance, if an English merchant, whose capital employed in England returns 10 per cent., could only employ it in France with a profit of 5 per cent., would the English government be charged with folly or blindness, if it granted to this merchant a bounty of 5 per cent., which would raise the profits of his capital to the ordinary rate of interest? Would not this sacrifice, made by the government to the extension of its commerce, be compensated by the advantage of 5 per cent. paid by the stranger, by the salaries which the capital advanced pays to the workmen employed,

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and by the rent which the products of the soil consumed in this commerce would guarantee to the English land-owner? Such a sacrifice would be well made; not oppressive to England, but, on the contrary, very profitable; and the case would be still stronger, if this bounty could have the effect of insuring the sale of English manufactures to the prejudice of those of France: — if it could so effectually ruin them as to compel their abandonment. In this case, England would find in its bounty the double advantage of having arrested the progress of French industry, and of having extended the power of its own industry and its own commerce.' (Vol. ii. p. 267.)

The argument is afterward extended to favour bounties on the exportation of corn, on the principle that such bounties encourage an increased production of corn equal to the entire quantity exported. Now, with reference to the supposition just quoted, it may be observed that it is taken for granted to be the interest of one country to destroy the industry of another with which it has commercial dealings! Push the principle to its extent. If it be advantageous for England to destroy one branch of French industry, it is equally beneficial to destroy another and another, till at last France would have no means of purchasing from England those very manufactures which she had encouraged by means of a bounty. This is the *demonstratio ad absurdum*. What becomes of the boasted extension of the foreign market for England, if England has impoverished her customer? It is clear that no government can have occasion to encourage any branch of its domestic industry, to which local or political circumstances, soil, climate, peculiar dexterity, &c., have already given a superiority: these circumstances are the true *bounty* which nature has conferred and art has improved. It cannot be necessary, for instance, that France should encourage by a bounty its silk manufactures, or England its cottons: trade being free, the one would advantageously exchange against the other. Those branches of industry, then, can alone require a bounty for their encouragement, which, in consequence of some disadvantages, are unable to fight their own way in open competition. Yet such branches of industry are better without a bounty than with it, and it is better to let them alone. Although, however, France can have no occasion to encourage her silk-manufactures by a bounty, yet, as England, according to M. GANILH, would find it her interest to destroy them and introduce her own, it would certainly be very necessary for the latter, in order to accomplish the hopeful purpose, to offer an enormous bounty to the looms of Spital-fields. Now, who is to pay this bounty? It must be levied by a tax on the people at large, and a part of

of it would therefore be paid by the Spital-field weavers themselves. The necessity of a bounty, to raise the returns of capital employed in a given direction to the average level of the returns of capital employed in others, implies and proves that the former is a disadvantageous direction; and the author, in another chapter, (vol. ii. p. 240.) has quoted with just approbation a passage from Adam Smith, where he says that it is a maxim of every prudent father of a family not to make that at home which he can buy cheaper abroad: the tailor does not make his own shoes, nor the shoemaker his own clothes, but each buys of the other; finding it more to his own advantage to encourage the industry of his neighbour in that direction in which he has been accustomed to employ it with skill and success, than to exercise his own in a business which he does not understand.

We must here give a parting salute to M. GANILH. Generally speaking, we have had the pleasure of agreeing with his positions, and he certainly is a clear and animated writer. The task in which he engaged, of condensing the opinions of the most celebrated authors on political economy, was a laborious undertaking, and he has executed it with much fairness, ability, and compression. Our readers will have observed, too, that he is by no means to be considered as a compiler merely, or a barren retailer of the doctrines of other people, much close and original reasoning being to be found in these volumes. A translation of them would probably be very acceptable to the English public.

ART. XI. *Mémoires Historiques, Politiques, et Littéraires, &c.*: *i. e.* Historical, Political, and Literary Memoirs relative to the Kingdom of Naples. By Count GREGORY ORLOFF, Senator of Russia. Published with Notes and Additions by *Amoury Duval*, Member of the Royal Institute of France. 5 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1819—1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 11. 16s.

WE announce under this modest title a comprehensive and ingenious work, from the pen of a Russian nobleman of great talents and considerable erudition: who wrote it in the French language during a long residence at Naples, and, on his return to Russia, placed the MS. in the hands of M. *Duval* for publication. In our opinion, the Count was fortunate in this choice; since, in the character of editor, M. *Duval* has enriched the Memoirs by a copious and elaborate commentary, without incumbering the text by his annotation. The author, indeed, seems rather to have had in view an historical disquisition

disquisition on the events, antient and modern, relative to that part of Italy which constitutes the Neapolitan kingdom, than a history properly so called: he therefore passed somewhat too lightly over many important transactions, which the general reader requires to be more developed; and, as if fearful of impeding the progress of his narration, he was rather sparing of those biographical sketches which impart so much interest to books of this description. We think, consequently, that M. *Duval's* commentary will be found not merely an useful but a requisite supplement.

The *Memoirs* are divided into three parts; of which the first is strictly historical, being the whole chain of Neapolitan events from the remotest antiquity to the present time. The second treats of the policy and legislation of that country during the Roman domination, — the revolutions effected by conquest and invasion, — and the changes produced by the different characters of the successive dynasties; concluding with a picture of the political condition of Naples in 1806, the subversion of the government at that period, and the state of its law and policy at the very moment when the author undertook his task. The third part is perfectly original, for it is exclusively dedicated to the history of Neapolitan literature; comprehending transient views of the state of letters during the time of the Greeks and Romans, with more detailed notices of it in the middle ages, and from the revival of learning to the present day. We term this part of Count ORLOFF's work *original*, because, although many eminent writers in all the departments of taste and learning have contributed to the reputation of Neapolitan literature, it has hitherto excited but little notice among the enlightened nations of Europe.

That this publication supplies a *desideratum* in historic literature, the editor has satisfactorily proved in his preface and the supplementary note annexed to it. It seems that France is peculiarly barren of Neapolitan history; there being scarcely any other general history of Naples in French than that which appeared in 1741, under the title of *Histoire des Rois des deux Siciles, de la Maison de France*, by M. *Egly*. Even that production occupies too limited a space to comprize any considerable portion of the most momentous times of the history; and the rest are, for the most part, professed abridgments, such as that which was prefixed to the *Voyage pittoresque de Naples et de Sicile*, and that which *Lalande* has inserted in the sixth volume of his travels, being merely meagre extracts from the great history of *Gibbon*; — or they are particular memoirs of detached passages in the history of Naples, such as the celebrated revolution of *Masaniello*, or the narratives

narratives of the Duke *de Guise* and the Count *de Modena*. The editor's note places also in a still stronger light the utility of an historical treatise like that which is before us, by giving an excellent list and account of the Italian historians of Naples. After a masterly summary of their merits and defects, *M. Duval* thus concludes :

‘ In all these histories, antient or modern, we look in vain for that which readers of the present day require, nay demand from historians ; viz. philosophical speculations on the destinies of nations, their laws, and constitutions, with instructive reflections on the course and progress of science, industry, and commerce. In those works, kings appear almost exclusively on the stage, with their ministers and their armies ;— while the great bulk of the people are scarcely introduced, unless at a faint and obscure distance.’

It may naturally be inferred that Count ORLOFF has given more expansion and particularity to the modern than the antient transactions of his history. He begins, therefore, with a slight sketch of the origin of the ‘ primitive people of that part of Italy which now constitutes the kingdom of Naples, and of its most celebrated antient cities.’ In this remote region of antiquity, his materials are of course scanty and insufficient : for time, barbarian invasions, and sudden transitions of government, have not left many authentic monuments of those remote epochs. Nor is the defect supplied by a few fragments of sculpture, and the broken and mutilated remains of antient authors, which have always been subjects of endless discussions and controversies among the learned. The author makes the following just observations on the obscurity of this part of his subject :

‘ The history of the early people of Italy is concealed by a two-fold veil, that of time and that of fable. Not a single work is extant of those writers, who could alone have conducted us through this immense labyrinth ; we mean, the authors who preceded the establishment of the schools of *Magna Græcia*, an æra which nearly corresponds with that of the expulsion of kings from Rome. The Greek historians are suspicious authorities in more respects than one, when they advance opinions relative to the people who were civilized or invaded by colonies from Greece. Carried away by a lofty imagination, they only transmitted fables respecting those remote times ; and, proud of the pre-eminence of their country in letters and arts, they attributed to it the honour of being exclusively the instructress of nations. The practice, common in Greece, of sending out colonies, cherished this presumptuous notion ; and the celebrity, which Italy so justly obtained, made it a peculiar object of attention to the Greeks, and the subject of their most fanciful conceptions.

' The Romans would have left to posterity much more correct information as to the antient state of the people of Italy, for they carefully consigned the most important transactions of their age to their pontifical annals : but the writings of their first historians have not descended to us, and the loss is irreparable. Cornelius Nepos tells us that M. Porcius Cato (the Censor) had dedicated the twelfth book of his " Histories," to the origin of the towns of Italy, and that it contained interesting researches into their first foundation *: but we are acquainted with nothing more than fragments of this work. Diodorus Siculus, Dionysius of Halicarnassus, and Dion, have traced the early history of the Romans, sparing neither time nor labour to acquit themselves of so immense and difficult a task. They were well acquainted with the events of past ages, by consulting the works of the most eminent authors who preceded them, as well as the most learned of their contemporaries ; and their writings would have been of the greatest aid to us, if time had not in a great degree mutilated or destroyed them.

' Plutarch, Sallust, Livy, and Tacitus, have not supplied the loss ; and in such a dearth of materials, it will be evident how embarrassing it is to fix authentically the origin of the people of Italy. Dionysius attributed it to the Greeks, and his opinion was generally received by the antients, but has been controverted by the moderns, who are divided on the subject. Some trace it to the Celts, others to the Phenicians, and others to Crete. Without meaning to deny that these migrations took place, we must remark that it is still evident that this beautiful country was not destitute of indigenous inhabitants, when foreigners arrived there. These people experienced no doubt nearly the same fate as those nations of America, whom the Europeans despoiled of all that could mark them to posterity as civilized societies. It is for a similar reason that we know so little of the early nations of Italy.' (P. 13—16.)

These people are therefore described by the Roman poets and historians not only as rude, cruel, and addicted to rapine, but even sometimes as canibals of gigantic stature. Count ORLOFF, however, infers that, in ages still more remote, the peninsula abounded with the lights of civilization and refinement ; and of such a state of things, he thinks, the reigns of Janus, Saturn, and CEnotrus left imperishable records. He is supported in this opinion by Justin and Macrobius ; of whom the former has given a captivating picture of the reign of Saturn, and the latter a description of the Saturnalian games, which seems to prove that their institution was

* Cornelius Nepos, (in M. Porcius Cato,) speaking of this work, says that in the second and third books, Cato explained *unde quæque civitas orta sit Italica, ob quam rem omnes origines videntur appellasse.*

commemorative of the happiness of that early period.—Wisely, however, quitting this barren and perplexed field of controversy, the author contents himself with throwing a rapid glance on the most celebrated of those people who have successively inhabited the country which is the subject of his research. Into this part of his inquiries we must decline to accompany him, though we cannot omit the remark with which he concludes it;

‘ While we are thus giving the last touch to one of the most extensive pictures of antiquity, we ought to add that the freedom, which the Greek republics of Italy enjoyed, produced the activity and industry which in a short time rendered them prosperous, but which the more decidedly hastened their ruin. Cuma and Crotona, the most opulent among them, fell victims to their wealth, and to the luxury and corruption which it engendered. The Brutians, who during the fifth age of Rome made the Greeks tremble for their own safety, themselves lost their liberty under the Romans. Tarentum and Rhegium followed them into the same sepulchre,—and they alone, as if by a miracle, preserved the language and some of the remaining usages of Greece. Thus perished *Magna Græcia*! The very name fell into disuse at Rome in the time of Polybius, and still more in that of Augustus.’

Chapter II. conducts us from the epoch at which this interesting portion of Italy bowed under the domination of the Roman republic, (a period during which it scarcely appears on the theatre of life, and its very history ceases with its independence,) to that great moral and political revolution which was effected by the irruption of the northern nations; when the old world seems to have been destroyed as by a vehement explosion, and manners, laws, and language were instantaneously changed. The Roman power had taken from the people of Italy all the vigour and energy which belong to freedom; and, during many ages of degeneracy, they had been gradually sinking so low as to fall an easy prey to the barbarous tribes, whose hordes passed at once the Alps and the Appennines. In the fifth century, Odoacer, chief of the Heruli, having subverted the empire of the West, reigned in Italy for seventeen years; and, under his sway, she appeared to respire from her sufferings, for she was still governed by law and enjoyed the security which results from it. Odoacer, however, was overthrown by Theodoric the Goth; who afterward established that flourishing kingdom, which extended from the foot of the Alps to Sicily. In the following century, the Goths were expelled by Belisarius and Narses, who restored for a short period the eastern empire in Italy: but, after the recall of the latter of those illustrious commanders,

the Lombards established a new kingdom in this beautiful country; and their success attracted fresh swarms from the hive of nations.

Setting aside the historical details of Italy under the Lombard princes, Count ORLOFF passes over to the middle of the eighth century, in order to arrive at an æra which particularly demands the attention of the reader. Astolphus, the twenty-second king of the Lombards, was destined to witness the first rise of that lowly domination, which has constituted an epoch not only in Italian history but in that of the world. Pepin, king of France, having supported the dukes of Spoleto and Benevento in a successful revolt against that monarch, made a donation to the church of the city of Ravenna, and other towns then constituting the state of Pentapolis; — ‘the origin,’ says Count O., ‘of that power which was one day to be so formidable. It was the first and one of the most splendid triumphs of the church.’ The donation was afterward confirmed by Charlemagne, who put an end to the Lombard dynasty, and assumed among other titles that of King of Italy.

During these vicissitudes, Naples, then the dukedom of Liburia, exempted by her remote position from the sway of the barbarians, was perhaps the only example at that period of a state governed by its own laws and nominating its own sovereign. Her territories comprized Amalfi, Sorrento, Stabia, Misenum, Cuma, Puzzeoli, and the adjacent islands. Rossano in Calabria, Gallipoli and Otranto in Apulia, were governed by Greek envoys from Constantinople; — the rest of the modern kingdom of Naples formed a part of the possessions of the Lombards and of the duchy of Benevento.

In the ninth century, however, Naples, sinking under the oppression of one of the dukes of Benevento, called to her aid the Saracens, the scattered remains of the people who had shone with so bright a glory under the Caliphs; and ‘thus this beautiful peninsula,’ observes the Count, ‘as if condemned to see her bosom torn by the most ferocious and uncivilized nations, after having been a prey to the tribes of the north, was again abandoned to those of the south, whose rapacity was not compensated by their courage, or by respect for their institutions, or by a common religion.’ The dukedom of Benevento was in consequence divided into three principalities; Benevento, Salerno, and Capua. — A long and uniform series of intestine feuds succeeded, and Italy seemed hastening to anarchy and confusion. Yet, in the midst of these dreadful disorders, the inhabitants of the Neapolitan territory preserved some remains of the arts and sciences, which were extinct in every other part of Europe.

Naples,

Naples, Gaeta, and particularly Amalfi, cultivated navigation, and acquired considerable wealth by commerce; and, at the close of the ninth century, Amalfi surpassed in power and prosperity the most eminent of the antient cities of Greece.

Count ORLOFF now arrives at one of the most important epochs in the history of the middle ages. The NORMANS, originally pirates of Sclavonia, obtained in the tenth century, from the fears and weakness of Charles surnamed the Simple, that part of France which they erected into an independent sovereignty, and which still bears their name. In the eleventh century, they invaded England, and established a dynasty in that island. It happened, also, that a small band of Normans, returning from a pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulchre, landed at Salerno, and besought temporary hospitality from the prince who governed there. It was granted; and they repaid the kindness by a successful defence of the place from an incursion of Saracens. The consequence was that they were solicited to remain in the dominions which they had already contributed to defend; and, accepting the invitation, they laid the foundation of the Norman power in the kingdom of Naples. The first settlers attracted succeeding bands of adventurers; who, extending their conquests year after year, drove the Greeks from Apulia and Calabria, the Saracens from Sicily, and the Lombards from all that remained of their antient possessions in Campania.

The third chapter presents a rapid recapitulation of events from the establishment of the Norman monarchy of Sicily and Italy, to the termination of that dynasty in Tancred at the end of the twelfth century, — an interval of 80 years. The Suabian line of princes ended with Mainfroy in 1266, who was deposed by the papal power. The reign of the princes of Anjou began with Charles, brother of St. Louis, who made Naples the capital of his estates. The defeat and captivity of Conradin, (the last of the Suabian branch,) who attempted to recover his dominions from Charles, is detailed with learned minuteness by M. *Duval* in a note annexed to this part of the work. It left Charles in undisturbed possession of the throne, and his entrance to power was marked by the most savage proscriptions and the bloodiest executions: in the course of which the illustrious son of Frederic perished by the hands of the executioner. It was reserved for a private individual to deliver his country, and to despoil Charles of one of his finest crowns, by means of the most bloody incident recorded in history. We insert the present author's narrative of *The Sicilian Vespers* in 1282.

' Charles was about to execute his scheme of restoring Baldwin to the throne of Constantinople, when John de Prosida, a nobleman of Salerno, disconcerted the enterprise. Attached to the house of Suabia, he had conceived the rash project of establishing the daughter of Mainfroy and her husband on the throne of Sicily, where Charles was justly abhorred; and, assured of the wishes of the Sicilians, he hastened to Constantinople, where he engaged by his eloquent intreaties the Emperor Palæologus to lend his aid to the King of Arragon. Then repairing to Rome, he obtained from the Pope a promise of the investiture of Sicily for Peter of Arragon, who had already armed and sailed from the port of Arragon with a powerful navy. Prosida, encouraged by this circumstance, thought that he ought to lose no time in executing his sanguinary purpose.

' The eve of the vigil of Easter, a season consecrated by religion to joy, was the time chosen by him and his partizans to destroy all the French in the island. Just as the vespers began, the people who had assembled in the churches ran suddenly out at an appointed signal, at the same time, in every part of Sicily, and massacred without pity or distinction of age, birth, sex, or rank, all the French inhabitants. More than 8000 persons fell in this massacre.' (P. 159.)

We have quoted the passage concerning this memorable carnage, in order to point out an important error into which the author seems to have been led by *Gianonne*, or rather by *Costanzo*, whom the Neapolitan jurist implicitly follows. The Sicilian vespers were by no means the result of a deliberate conspiracy, if we may believe *Nicolas Specialis*, a contemporary writer in the seventh volume of *Muratori's* collection; who represents that insurrection as originating exclusively in an outrage committed by a Frenchman on a Palermitan lady during a religious procession on the vigil of Easter. The intrigues, indeed, so skilfully conducted by John of Prosida, were just ripe for developement: but it was this accident that immediately produced the popular ebullition, for which their impatience of their French masters had long prepared the minds of the Sicilians.*

The result of these commotions was the placing of Peter of Arragon on the throne of Sicily: but the most calamitous warfare ensued, and the people of Naples and Sicily were transferred from one dynasty to another by successive revolutions, without the slightest amelioration of their condition, which was little better than abject slavery. These misfortunes were the fruit of the protracted dissensions between the kingdoms of Sicily and Naples, which began soon after the

* For the best narrative of the Sicilian Vespers, see *Velly's History of France*, vol. vi.

Sicilian Vespers. We cannot omit a philosophical remark on the people of Naples, which a long residence among them seems to have suggested to the mind of the present author. Speaking of the vicissitudes and alternations of power, so common during that turbulent period, he observes :

‘ The people, as a nation, like the individuals who compose it, are more or less trifling, more or less inconstant. Whoever, when he reads the history of Naples, dwells on the reign of Jane II., would suppose that a spirit of the wildest delirium had possessed the nation : but, if he has passed any time in this country, the circumstance will not appear singular ; or, rather, that which at first seems to be extraordinary will be found wholly simple and natural. The Neapolitan is less influenced by his habits than by his sensations. If animated by the fire of the passions, like his own Vesuvius which at once fertilizes and ravages the territory, he seems to change his nature, and is no longer himself. With this people, all is excess, — love as well as hatred ; and they pass as rapidly from one to the other as the infant from joy to tears. It is for this reason that faction here always finds nourishment, and that revolutions on revolutions are continually breaking out.’ (P. 241.)

The Arragonese dynasty of Naples succeeded the imprudent reign of Jane ; and Count ORLOFF's sixth chapter conducts us from the middle of the fifteenth century to the commencement of the sixteenth, which ushered in the family of Spain, destined to reign for so long a period of time over the fortunes of this most beautiful but wretched country. Chap. vii. opens with a moral picture of Spain, of which every attentive observer will recognize the justice, every reader of taste admire the eloquence, and every person of feeling regret the truth.

‘ There is a people in Europe, separated from every other by geographical position, and still more by national character ; a people who, from education and early habits, have been condemned to be stationary, to live in ignorance and debasement, in the midst of the most improved and civilized countries. Need we name the natives of Spain ? Yet they are proud and ambitious ; and they distinguished themselves while the rest of the world had not yet surpassed them in civilization. That was the time of their glory. Nature, surrounding them almost entirely by the ocean, seemed to indicate that element as the theatre of their pride and ambition. Obligated to carry on a struggle in their own territory, for many ages, with a fanatical race who came to settle among them, they learned by their example to admit no compromise with a religion that differed from their own. From that time, Spain united the most obstinate intolerance to her natural bravery, and unexampled severities marked her religious institutions and laws. She grew cruel from duty, merciless from fanaticism, and, instead of being the admiration, became the terror of neighbouring states. So blind was her submission to her

bloody institutes, that it made her resemble the half-civilized people whom she had subdued in another hemisphere, and who immolated their own brethren to their gods. Tyrannizing over twenty nations, Spain was herself the slave of her prejudices. In short, notwithstanding the active and brilliant reign of Charles the Fifth, she seemed for many centuries to be sunken in a stupid indolence, from which she aroused only at the cry of her priests, when they sought to alarm her against the supposed enemies of her religion. But she observed with indifference the arts of society advancing to perfection in other countries, and useful knowledge scattering among them its blessings. — Such is the language which a friend of humanity would be warranted in addressing to the Spanish nation; rendering justice at the same time to their high qualities, and to the exemplary courage of which, recently in particular, they have exhibited such brilliant proofs.' (Vol. ii. p. 2.)

Under the Austro-Spanish domination, the condition of the Neapolitans was little ameliorated. Governed by viceroys, their complaints to the fountain-head of authority were intercepted, and they were oppressed by injustice and pillaged by exactions. In the mean while, an epoch had arrived which was distinguished by every indication of social improvement. In Italy, the human mind awoke as from a trance, and the treasures of antient knowledge were unfolded to Europe. The science of politics, indeed, was still in its infancy: but the eyes of mankind began to open to their rights and their duties, and the seeds were scattered which were to fructify and increase at another period.

In 1538, Peter of Toledo, Marquis de Villa Franca, whose talents and integrity have deservedly handed him down to posterity, as the mildest and most beneficent of the viceroys appointed by the Spanish court to administer the affairs of Naples, but who was fiercely intolerant to the Lutheran heresy, attempted to introduce the tribunal of the Inquisition into that city. The following passage is interesting, not merely with regard to the fact which it records, but as it shews the liberal and enlightened sentiments of the present historian:

' Here let us render justice to the Neapolitan people. We have seen them unconcerned about their dearest interests, and bearing every successive change of masters without a murmur: — but, as soon as the attempt was made to establish this sanguinary tribunal at Naples, the cry of horror and indignation was heard, and the lightest and most inconstant nation on the earth became immediately the most determined and most obstinate. As soon as the resolution of the viceroy was notified by his edict, it was instantly torn down; and the Neapolitans, casting off their characteristic apathy, as if animated by the spirit which inspired their progen-

progenitors the Romans and the Samnites, rose in every quarter of the town, while the inhabitants of the surrounding country flocked to join them. The revolt was general. Old men, women, and children took arms; and, divesting themselves of the almost religious respect which they had hitherto preserved for their governor, they pursued him to his palace, and attacked the band of Spaniards whom he had called to his aid. Blood flowed on both sides. But no cause was ever more just than that of a people who refused to submit to a tyranny of all others the most intolerable, — that which constrained the thoughts of man. A truce was settled, till the return of deputies to the Imperial court; and the prudent Emperor suppressed the tribunal of the Holy Office, and issued a general amnesty.' (Vol. ii. p. 35.)

It is remarkable that the Neapolitans, who are confessedly the most superstitious nation in Europe, (the Spaniards perhaps excepted,) have never wavered in their aversion to this tribunal. There existed in 1793, and we believe that it was revived on the restoration of Ferdinand IV., a chamber of ancient institution, expressly framed to obviate every attempt to establish the Inquisition. It was composed of twenty nobles, elected by the *Sedili*, two deputies from the people, and a secretary; and the provisional object of this body was to watch the proceedings of the clergy, so closely as to give them no opportunity of insidiously erecting this abhorred judicature. It was called *Deputazione contro al S. officio*.

Of the *Sedili*, — an important feature in the Neapolitan constitution, and a word of perpetual recurrence in Neapolitan affairs, — a curious account is given in the notes of the learned editor; and we deem it necessary to extract a part of it for the information of the reader.

'In Naples, the attention of the traveller is attracted by a species of portico, decorated in the interior with paintings and sculptured armorial bearings. These are the *Sedili* or *Sygi*, or seats. In the little Greek democracies, they were places set apart for meetings of the magistrates and citizens on public business, situated generally near the gates; and circular benches of marble are still to be seen near the gate of Pompeii. Naples, in the thirteenth century, retained twenty-nine of these *Sedili*: — but only the nobles assembled there. By degrees, the number was reduced to five, and their prerogatives were considerably narrowed. They were a species of electoral chamber, and sent deputies to the parliaments when they were convoked: but, when the latter fell into disuse, the *Sedili* became merely nominal.' (Vol. ii. p. 318.)

In 1647, during the administration of *Mazarin* in France, that minister, absorbed in the grand policy of humbling Spain, sent out a powerful force against Naples. The defence of the city on that occasion having entailed a considerable
expen-

expenditure, the viceroy was driven to the expedient of a tax on fruit and vegetables, articles of the first necessity at Naples, because they are the chief subsistence of the people; and, though such an impost had been often attempted, it had never succeeded. In Naples at that time resided a young man named *Thomas Aniello*, (by contraction made into *Mas' Aniello*,) an illiterate fisherman; who was, however, endued with lively talents, and with a certain species of vulgar eloquence which is never exerted without effect among the lower orders of people; and who had conceived an implacable hatred against the government for some personal or domestic grievance. At this juncture, a public festival was celebrated at Naples: but the market where the people assembled was destitute of fruit, the peasantry having been detained by the tax from bringing that commodity for sale; and *Masaniello* stirred up that memorable sedition which has immortalized his name. The sudden and astonishing power wielded by this man, and the profligate cruelties by which he deluged Naples with the blood of its best citizens, are well known. His fate is thus commemorated by Count ORLOFF, and it bears some resemblance to that of a man of recent date, whose crimes were still more atrocious, — *Robespierre*.

‘When the leader of a party assails that party itself, he is not far from ruin. The principal citizens, who in this revolution marched under his banners and fought in his quarrel, finding themselves threatened by this ferocious tribune, felt the necessity of speedily destroying him. *Masaniello* saw that he was falling in popular favour. His furious discourses seemed, as in fact they were, those of a madman. One day, afflicted and surprized at the little success which followed his ordinary declamations, he was wandering in the cloisters of a monastery, plunged in the deepest melancholy; hearing himself called by some men who had been stationed there, he approached them confidently, when several musket-shots were fired at him, and he fell dead. Thus perished an individual, who, mean and ignorant as he was, obtained a power at Naples little inferior to that of *Thrasybulus* at Athens, or of the *Gracchi* at Rome. He might perhaps have proved himself a great man, if, to the probity and disinterestedness of which he had given such undeniable proofs, he had united humanity and justice.’ (Vol. ii. p. 97.)

We can only refer to *M. Duval's* valuable annotation on this passage, which contains interesting details concerning *Masaniello* and *Gennaro Annese*, his successor as leader of the faction that again broke out after his death. The editor cites a circumstance which fully proves what has been overlooked by many writers, the mental alienation of this extraordinary

ordinary person. The anecdote is taken from the German life of *Masaniello*, by *Meisner*. (See Notes, vol. ii. p. 327.)

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, Naples was doomed to pass under the Austrian yoke. By the treaty of Utrecht, Sicily was granted to the Duke of Savoy, and the duchy of Milan and Naples to the Emperor. The war lighted up by the Spanish succession, however, having again broken out, in defiance of the treaty of Utrecht, a Spanish armament in 1718 took possession of Sardinia and Sicily; and, in conformity to the deeply laid schemes and aspiring ambition of *Alberoni*, who swayed the Spanish counsels, preparations were made for the invasion of Naples. The other powers, alarmed at the ambition of Spain, soon compelled her to observe the treaty of Utrecht; and, Sicily being deemed necessary to the Emperor, that island and the Neapolitan kingdom were by the treaty of the quadruple alliance added to his dominions in 1720.

In the short space of twenty-seven years, the scene changed, and Naples returned under the domination of a prince of the house of France by a course of events which are familiar to all readers of modern history. Count ORLOFF, in his 8th chapter, proceeds from the year 1735; when Don Carlos* was securely in possession of the throne of the Two Sicilies; to the disputes about the Pragmatic Sanction, and the war against Maria Theresa which terminated in 1748 by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle;—and, running lightly over the splendid acts of the Neapolitan monarch, he pauses for a moment to remind us of the discovery of the antient city of Herculaneum, (a most interesting incident in this memorable reign,) and then brings down the affairs of the kingdom to the comparatively recent date (1768) of the marriage of the young King Ferdinand IV. with a princess of the house of Austria. From this period, the influence of the Spanish cabinet was no more, and Austria recovered her ascendancy over the affairs of Italy. The new Queen, daughter of the illustrious Maria Theresa, and sister of the great Joseph, soon rendered the imbecile Ferdinand, — whose education had been so miserably neglected as to unfit him for the active duties of his station, — a mere cypher in the state. *Acton*, one of her creatures, was placed at the head of the marine, and immense sums were squandered on the most ill-conceived projects, dictated by that minister to establish a Neapolitan navy. His experiments on the army (for he was appointed war-minister also) were equally senseless. Yet no long time elapsed be-

* Afterward known under the name of Charles III.

fore *Acton*, by succeeding also to the Marquis *Carraccioli* as minister of foreign affairs, obtained, in concert with the Queen, the supreme government of the kingdom. In the mean while the French Revolution broke out: but it was not, according to the present author, till 1791 that Naples took any decisive participation in the confederacy against France.

The appearance of a French squadron in the gulf of Naples, in 1792, instantaneously obtained a declaration of neutrality from this effeminate government: but, although restrained by the fear of the republican armies, while they were making a rapid progress in upper Italy, from breaking this compulsory neutrality, no sooner did the intelligence reach Naples of the capture of Toulon by the English than she joined the confederacy. The victories of *Bonaparte* in Italy again alarmed her, and she left the allies in a most critical period to fight their own battles. The court is described at this time as the very abode of confusion and irresolution, and the policy of the Queen and her minister is represented as equally cruel and timid; the most innocent individuals, if they were suspected of democracy or jacobinism, being thrown into dungeons, which soon overflowed with victims. The finances disordered, public faith destroyed, intolerable taxation yielding a precarious revenue, and a system of favouritism pervading the court and every department, formed the state of things in 1798; a year, says Count ORLOFF, the most stormy of the eighteenth century. Here, however, after the manner of the French school, he throws a reproach on England, which we point out as an instance of the bias that is so apt to pervert the understanding even of the most able and candid writers of history, when they descend so far towards recent and contemporary events as, unavoidably perhaps, to be tinctured with their passions and animosities. 'It was England,' he says, 'it were in vain to dissemble it, that lighted up everywhere the flames of war, and succeeded in getting up a new confederacy against France. By her gold and intrigues, she governed in every cabinet.' (Vol. ii. p. 182.) "*Obtrectatio et livor pronis auribus accipiuntur*," says the most philosophic of historians. Is it necessary to caution Count ORLOFF against giving currency to misrepresentations, which have so direct a tendency to corrupt the fountains of history?—It is with equal regret that we make a similar remark on the note of the editor (vol. ii. p. 365—373.) relative to the revolution which followed the flight of the royal family to Sicily in 1799, when the French became masters of Naples. We do not, however, withhold our unqualified
assent

assent to the terms in which he speaks of the shameful capitulation of General *Mack* at *Ulm*.

In the ninth chapter, the author has traced with apparent impartiality the vices and errors of the Neapolitan government which succeeded, under the affected name of the Parthenopæan Republic; and, among them, he dwells with proper emphasis on the total insensibility of the French to the religious feelings and prejudices of the people. 'The republicans,' he observes, 'always carrying their principles and measures to excess, were not contented with destroying the property of the clergy, but attacked their doctrines; and next they gave out that religion ought to have neither priests nor altars. Nothing was more calculated to wound the most cherished habits of the people; and from that moment they imbibed the deadliest antipathy to the French. The counter-revolution was already complete in the minds of the Neapolitans, before the royalists attempted it by arms.' — Of this counter-revolution, the horrors can scarcely be exaggerated; and the Count feelingly describes the terrible *re-action* of the 13th of June. The capitulation of the republicans was granted and signed on the part of the English squadron, the allied armies, and the French government; and the breach of this treaty is here ascribed without hesitation to the Queen, acting under the influence of Lady Hamilton, who is said at the instance of her royal mistress to have prevailed on Lord Nelson to annul it. We would willingly shut our eyes on this foul transaction, for the name of Nelson is deservedly dear to us, and his memory is among the proudest and most imperishable monuments of our national greatness: — but his insatuated attachment, while it for ever destroyed his domestic happiness, was fated also to leave an indelible stain on his public character. We recollect, and happen to have in our reach, the vindictory pamphlet published by Captain (now Admiral) Foote, who signed the capitulation on the part of the British fleet which was so lamentably violated:

"Nothing," says this injured officer, "can be more evident than that a solemn capitulation had been agreed on, signed by the commander of the forces of the King of Naples, the Russian commander, and myself, all duly authorized to sign any capitulation in the absence of superior powers. This was not a treaty subject to ratification; it was an agreement for surrender upon terms which involved the lives and properties of men, who might have chosen to forfeit those lives and properties, had they not relied principally upon the faith of a British officer. Parts of the agreement were performed, and actual advantage was taken afterwards of those parts of it which had been thus executed, to seize the unhappy
men

542 Rouillon's *Elementary Course of General Literature.*

men who, having been thus deceived by a sacred pledge, were sacrificed in a cruel and despotic manner."

We pass over the military occupation of Naples by the French, the establishment of *Joseph Bonaparte* as King of Naples and Sicily in 1806, his recall in 1808, and the appointment of *Murat* to succeed him, which form the subjects of chapter 10. The reign of *Murat* occupies the 11th, and the 12th briefly states the restoration of Ferdinand. These are incidents which are of such recent occurrence, that every reader has the means of arriving at satisfactory conclusions regarding them: but authentic history has not yet put its seal on facts which are variously represented, as they are variously contemplated through the medium of passions, prejudices, and parties. We shall therefore close our article for the present, with the intention of following Count ORLOFF in a future Number into fields of disquisition equally interesting and instructive; — we mean the history of the policy and jurisprudence of the kingdom of Naples in the second, and those of Neapolitan literature in the third, portions of these memoirs. We propose at the same time to offer our opinion on the aggregate merits and defects of this voluminous work, and the annotations of its editor.

[To be continued.]

ART. XII. *Cours Élémentaire de Littérature Générale, &c. ; i. e.* An Elementary Course of General Literature, for the Use of young People. By M. DE ROUILLON. Vol. I. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. London. 1821.

IT appears from the preface to this little volume that M. DE ROUILLON, when a widower, with an only daughter, married an English lady who keeps a boarding-school at Norwich, and that he now applies to the instruction of a numerous class those lessons which paternal solicitude had drawn up for an exclusively domestic purpose. Experience has justified his expectation that a course of lectures on the literature of France, illustrated by numerous detached passages and entire examples, would create a stronger desire thoroughly to know the language, and contribute more to facilitate its acquirement, than the perpetual perusal of a few authors however classical. This elementary course he now offers to the public, as likely to be useful in other schools besides his own; and as adapted to prepare the solitary student for a systematic acquaintance with the leading French authors.

The

The first chapter treats of the Apologue. Its origin and definition are given, and its style is critized: a succinct history of the principal fable-writers, antient and modern, follows; and the dissertation closes with select specimens of the best French fables. The second chapter examines pastoral poetry on a similar plan. Its definition, style, and origin, with a slight variation of the previous order of topic, are discussed: a brief history of the antient and modern bucolic writers is given; and the dissertation terminates with an anthology of French pastorals. Chapter iii. gives the theory of lyric poetry. Its definition, form, origin, and style, are successively investigated: the antient and modern ode-writers pass in review; and a copious selection of the best French odes finishes the section and the volume.

We deem the plan of this work remarkably good: but perhaps we think less highly of the critical and literary details of execution, than of its general scope and scheme. The province of the rhetorician and of the grammarian is not kept sufficiently distinct: but the information afforded is various, appropriate, and concise; and the choice of examples is directed by a judgment equally attentive to the claims of taste and those of morality.

M. DE ROUILLON thus characterizes *Le Brun*, one of the newer French classics:

' *Ponce-Denis-Ecouchard Le Brun* was born at Paris in 1720, and died in the same city in 1807. His poetic disposition, and the penetration and vivacity of his mind, were early discoverable. At twelve years of age he made verses; and an imitation of the psalm *Quare fremuerunt gentes* still subsists, which he completed when fourteen years old, in thirteen stanzas. The style may be feeble, but it announces a sensibility to rhythm and lyric harmony. This poet has not been idle, for the collection of his works contains one hundred and forty-two odes of various kinds and measures; among which at least forty-five may be ranked, for extent and for grandeur of topic and of style, with the best of those of *Pompignan*. The odes of *Rousseau* and the admirable choruses of *Esther* have not yet been supplanted. *Le Brun* excels not less in the epigram than in the ode, which forms an additional point of resemblance with *J. B. Rousseau*: but he has treated the epigram in a more extensive sense; and, if he be not superior to his predecessor, he is at least, as also in his ode, infinitely more various.'

The author's plan will probably oblige him to extend this work through two or three more volumes: but, as so large a portion consists of extract, its limits are very arbitrary, and may somewhat depend on the degree of public encouragement.

ART. XIII. *Jules, ou le Frère Gèneveux, &c.; i. e. Julius, or the Generous Brother; preceded by an Essay on Romances.* By A. H. DAMPMARTIN. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 7s.

ALTHOUGH this work bears the title of a novel, and consists of nearly five hundred pages, only one hundred and twenty-five are devoted to Julius, the hero of the story, the rest being occupied by the Essay on modern Romances; and our recollection fails us much if we have not seen the substance of this essay in a contemporary English periodical work. If this be the case, the plagiarism may perhaps pass undetected by M. DAMPMARTIN's countrymen; and he has the merit of adding some few extracts from Madame de Stael's "*Germany*;" with two or three observations of that great modern Aristarch, as the author designates him, *La Harpe*, and part of a translation into French of "*The Vicar of Wakefield*," to which we will not dispute the present author's exclusive title. The novel itself details the disinterestedness of an officer whose brother fell in love with the lady to whom *he* (the officer) was engaged, and which lady with all due delicacy preferred the new admirer. A tedious tale is introduced by an old uncle, intended to be in praise of the antient nobility and the old order of things in France. We presume, from the translation of "*The Vicar of Wakefield*," and from the eulogies on St. Louis and other badinage, that M. DAMPMARTIN has been an emigrant resident in England; and from the whole composition we infer that he is rather an amateur than an author by profession.

ART. XIV. *Le Chevalier Huldmann, &c.; i. e. The Chevalier Huldmann de Berhinger, or the Cavern of the Mountain of Revelans.* Translated from the German of AUGUSTE LA FONTAINE by the Countess Elise de Montholon. 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris. 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 12s.

Le Chevalier Huldmann, a silly fairy tale, stands first in this series of fanciful histories, translated into French from the German of the prolific AUGUSTE LA FONTAINE. Among the others, *Les trois Jours*, or *Sebastian Schiller*, has most attraction and merit: but the collection deserves little praise, the sentiments being mostly exaggerated, the incidents improbable, and the ingenuity of the principal characters employed in deceiving parents and guardians, who are represented as purchasing all offences with unbounded, romantic, and perverted indulgence.

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To the REMARKABLE PASSAGES in this Volume.

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